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FACILITATING LEARNING AND INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT, TOWARD A THEORY FOR ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE. MINNESOTA GUIDANCE SERIES.

BY- GRAMS, ARMIN
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A THEORY UPON WHICH ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE PROGRAMS CAN BE SOUNDLY DESIGNED IS PRESENTED. A MAJOR THEME IS THAT PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OR GOOD ADJUSTMENT IS RELATED TO LEARNED, INDIVIDUAL COMPETENCIES SUCH AS COMMUNICATION AND INTERACTION IN DEPTH WITH OTHERS. THE APPROPRIATE CONCERN OF GUIDANCE THEN BECOMES TO FOSTER THESE COMPETENCIES, THUS EMOTIONALLY FREEING THE INDIVIDUAL TO LEARN IN THE CLASS ROOM. THE ROLES OF PARENTS, ELEMENTARY TEACHERS, SPECIALISTS, AND ADMINISTRATORS ARE EXAMINED FROM AN INDIVIDUAL AND TEAM VANTAGE POINT. A SUGGESTED DEMONSTRATION MODEL FOR AN ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE PROGRAM IS INCLUDED. MAJOR EMPHASIS IS THAT THE OBJECTIVE OF VASTLY IMPROVED LEARNING IN YOUNG CHILDREN CAN BE ACHIEVED ONLY AS ALL CONCERNED, INFORMED, AND RESPONSIBLE PARTIES ACCEPT THEIR SHARE OF THE RESPONSIBILITY AND BEND EVERY EFFORT TO PROVIDE THE IMPROVED GUIDANCE FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILD. THIS DOCUMENT PRESENTS A COMPREHENSIVE PHILOSOPHY AND RATIONALE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS ON THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LEVEL. THIS REPORT IS ALSO AVAILABLE FROM THE MINNESOTA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, DOCUMENTS SECTION, CENTENNIAL BUILDING, ST. PAUL, 55101. (RM)

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toward a theory for elementary guidance

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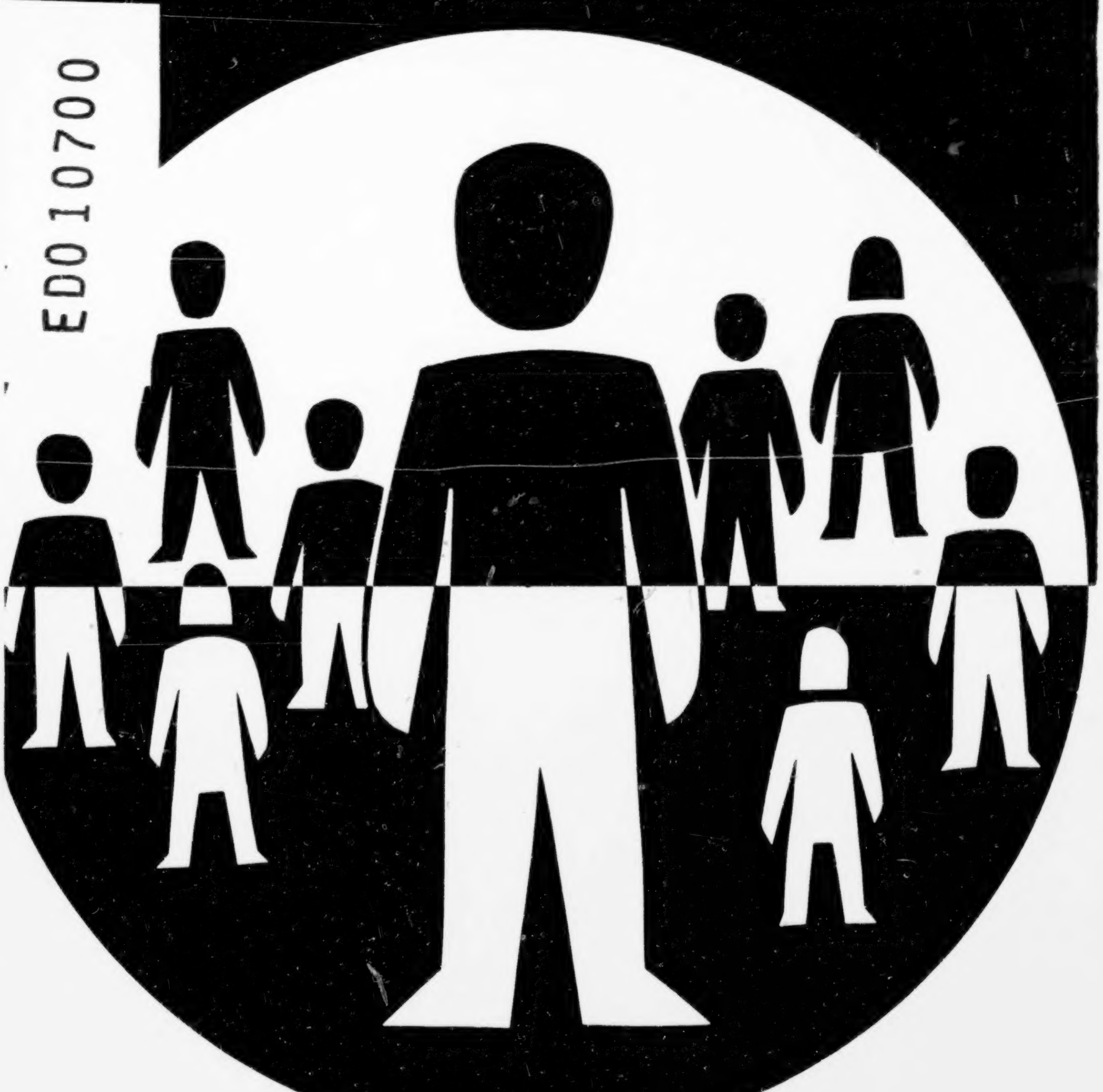

Minnesota Department of Education

First in an Elementary Guidance Series

Facilitating Learning and Individual Development

Toward a Theory for Elementary Guidance

By

Armin Grams
The Merrill - Palmer Institute
Detroit, Michigan

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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14

ERRATA

The Mathewson, 1961 reference noted on page 38 refers to Mathewson, R.H. School guidance: a four dimensional model. *Personnel Guid J.* 1961, 39, .645-649.

The "Lovell" 1963 reference noted on page 42 should read "Lornell."

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St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

Elementary Guidance Subcommittee*

of the

Advisory Committee on Guidance, Counseling, and Testing

Dr. Moy F. Gum, Subcommittee Chairman
Department of Psychology
University of Minnesota, Duluth

Lowell A. Doebbert, Guidance Director
Glenwood Public Schools

Dr. Roland S. Larson
Coordinator of Student Personnel Services
St. Louis Park Public Schools

Mary Ann Murphy, Resource Teacher
Elementary Reading Programs
Minneapolis Public Schools

Lewis H. Schoening, Guidance Director
Winona Public Schools

Elvera M. Springer
Coordinator of Guidance Services
Robbinsdale Public Schools

G. Dean Miller, Guidance Consultant
State Department of Education

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*It should be mentioned this is one of several elementary guidance committees which have been active over the years in studying this aspect of education. A previous Ad Hoc Committee of this Advisory Committee included the following: Josephine Kremer, Chairman, Director of Elementary Education, Austin Public Schools; Dr. Arthur Lewis, Director of Elementary Education, Minneapolis Public Schools; Dr. James Curtin, Director, Elementary School, University of Minnesota; Milo Madsen, Principal, Roseville Public Schools; Ralph Reeder, Superintendent, Mounds View Public Schools; Ellen Olson, Elementary Teacher, Long Lake School; Beryl Blair, Elementary Teacher, St. Paul Public Schools; Harriet Arndt, Elementary Teacher, Stillwater Public Schools; Margery Harris, Elementary Teacher, St. Louis Park Public Schools; Lauretta Bean, Elementary Teacher, Springfield Public Schools; H. A. Mahler, Superintendent, Franklin Public Schools. Reynold Erickson was Department of Education representative and Dr. Albert Krueger, St. Cloud State College, was then chairman of the Elementary Guidance Subcommittee.

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Many individuals contribute in obvious as well as subtle ways to a project like this. There is much that goes on behind the scenes of any production, without which there would be no product, but about which one doesn't often hear. A book becomes identified with its author, a dramatic performance with its "star," a product with its company, and the host of supporting persons, materials, events, and facilities receive little if any notice or credit. There are those whose contributions are vital and it is well that we acknowledge the author's indebtedness to them.

The initiative which led to the conception of this monograph was taken by the Guidance staff of the Minnesota State Department of Education and the members of their Elementary Guidance Sub-Committee. Over the years in which the work was in progress their interest and enthusiasm were significant motivating factors. Within this group, however, G. Dean Miller must be singled out for particular commendation. Unquestionably, his vision, patience, and incisive comments did more to benefit the final draft than anyone to whom tribute here is paid.

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Any undertaking which involves time spent alone is accomplished only at some cost to one's family. Our children, Paul, Beth, Jim and John, relinquished some claim to time rightfully theirs so that the work might go forward. What this really means, of course, is that my wife Non shouldered much more than her share of the family's needs during the writing. Her willingness to assume the additional load and her constant interest and insightful suggestions are substantially responsible for the eventual completion of this task.

Armin Grams

Grosse Pointe, Michigan
May, 1966

Introduction

Some elementary schools around the country have had "specialists" in elementary guidance programs for years. Many schools have the services of school social workers, school psychologists, and school nurses to help teachers in working with children in the school setting. Recently there has been additional concern about more completely meeting the needs of individual students with various family backgrounds in a variety of school settings.

As more funds are becoming available for additional services in the school from many disciplines, there is an obvious need to develop a theoretical framework from which schools can clarify the role and functions of *all* individuals who attempt to influence in positive ways the life of the individual learner in the school. The purpose of this monograph is an attempt to work toward a general theory for elementary guidance not only to establish a point of reference for pilot and demonstration projects, but to serve as a stimulus in generating other ideas and concepts regarding this area of guidance.

In deciding who should be invited to develop the monograph, it was felt that someone with a background in elementary education and child development should be sought since these areas of knowledge and experience are relevant to any development of theory about elementary guidance. Dr. Armin Grams with experience as an elementary teacher, principal, parent educator, and child development specialist made him a logical choice for the assignment.

We have developed a demonstration model located in the Appendix which incorporates many of the concepts discussed in the monograph and in some of the other references. Schools interested in experimentation in elementary guidance are encouraged to study this section.

We trust that this monograph will be useful in generating discussion, experimentation, and evaluation of elementary guidance in the hope that the individual student might reach a greater degree of self fulfillment in our democratic society.

The Guidance Staff

Minnesota Department of Education

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Chapter 1. THEORY—NEEDS AND A FORMULATION 9

Current Needs in the Field as Reflected in the Growing Literature in Elementary School Guidance 9

Toward a Rationale for Elementary School Guidance 13

A Learner—Centered Theory 15

References 23

Chapter 2. GUIDANCE AS THE FACILITATION OF LEARNING AND INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT 25

Varieties of Learning 25

Skills and Controls 26

Attitudes Toward Self and Others 27

Emotional Learning 29

Values and Priorities 29

Fostering Learning 31

Guidance Functionaries 34

Parents 34

Administrators 36

Teachers 37

School Nurse 39

School Social Worker 41

School Psychologist 42

Elementary Guidance Consultant 44

References 46

Chapter 3. THE ROLE OF PARENTS IN THE FACILITATION OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT 49

Supplying a Sound Emotional Base 50

School Phobia 50

Attention Problems 51

Attempts to Unravel an Intricate Skein 52

Providing Adequate Social Skills 54

Stimulating Abilities and Special Talents 58

Understanding Children's Ability 60

Understanding Readiness as an On-Going Process 61

Page

Direct Experiences which Ready the Child for Learning 63

Thinking: A Family Activity 64

Reading and Vicarious Experience.................... 67

To Develop a Scale of Values for the Child............... 72

Toward Learning 73

Toward Self 75

Toward Others 76

How Can Parents Learn to Play This Role............... 77

References 79

Chapter 4. THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER 83

Preschool Learning 85

Providing Optimal Conditions for Learning and Growth 86

Understanding the Learner.......................... 89

Understanding Learning 92

Promoting and Maintaining the "Set to Learn"....... 95

Meeting Emotional and other Development Needs..... 100

In-Service Education of Teachers.................... 103

Implications for Teacher Education..................... 106

Growth in Self-Understanding 106

Preservice Preparation in Educational Psychology.... 109

Intensive Training of Kindergarten and Primary Teachers 111

Working with Parents and other Adults.............. 113

Training in Experimentation and Innovation.......... 116

References 119

Chapter 5. THE ROLE OF SPECIALISTS AS FACILITATING AGENTS IN THE GUIDANCE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN 123

The Specialist as an Extension of the Teacher......... 123

Teaching Functions and the Role of the Specialist........ 127

Developing a Facilitative Orientation.................... 131

Consultation about Learning 133

The School Psychologist as Consultant about Learning.. 137

Other Specialists as Consultants about Learning....... 139

Page

Consultation about Learners 141

Specialists as Consultants about Learners 147

Consultation with and about Individual Learners 152

Elementary Counselor, Child Behavior Consultant, etc.. 154

School Psychologist 157

School Social Worker 159

Providing Services Locally 162

A Suggested Model 163

Federal Funds Make Local Experimentation Possible.. 164

References 165

Chapter 6. THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR AND THE GUIDANCE OF LEARNING 169

The Administrator as Educator and Leader 169

The Training of Administrators 175

Innovative Programs 178

Grade Level Reorganization 178

Programs for Preschool Children and Their Parents... 182

Programs for Parents of School Age Children 188

Specialists Included in New Programs 193

Experimental Programs for Children 196

Entrance and Promotional Policies 197

Teacher-Pupil Ratio 199

Teacher Assistants 200

Parent Volunteers 203

Epilogue 205

References 205

Appendix I A Suggested Demonstration Model for an Elementary Guidance Program Utilizing the Role of an Elementary Guidance Consultant—G. Dean Miller 207

Appendix II Supplement to Minimum Standards and Procedures for NDEA Approval of Demonstration Elementary Guidance Programs 220

Index 221

Chapter 1

Theory – Needs and a Formulation

> Guidance in elementary schools is usually interpreted as a service to *all* children in making maximum use of their abilities, for their own good and for that of society. The emphases of this service are on early identification of the pupils' intellectual, emotional, social, and physical characteristics; development of his talent; diagnosis of his learning difficulties, if any; and early use of available resources to meet his needs (Smith and Eckerson, 1963).

This definition has at least two characteristics which recommend it to us for further study. It focuses our attention early on the comprehensive nature of elementary school guidance, and it testifies to our faith in the relevance of many facets or emphases though we lack a really good theory with which to pull these together.

Current needs in the field as reflected in the growing literature in elementary school guidance

Since the middle 1950's there has been a marked increase in writing devoted to guidance in the elementary school. Looking back over the ten years we discern a trend which reflects a very significant change in our conception of the process of guidance. Farwell and Peters (1957) signalled for such a change early in the past decade when they noted how much had been said about the similarities between guidance at the elementary level and guidance at the secondary level and suggested that perhaps we ought to look at the way they differed. We are indebted to them for espousing a view which has gained credence through the years and is now sufficiently substantial to demand that we compare older conceptions of guidance to it. Their emphasis upon a child development point of view, which obviously must be shared with many other people concerned with the nurture of children, opened the door to a re-examination of the nature and functions of elementary school guidance.

Admittedly, the door has opened very slowly and during the interevening years many basic texts in elementary guidance explored the philosophies and principles of guidance, methods of conducting guidance services, supervising the programs, evaluating the results, and interpreting the service to the community. (Cottingham, 1956; Garry, 1963; Gordon, 1956; Knapp, 1959; Kowitz and Kowitz, 1959; Martinson and Smallenberg, 1958; Peters, Riccio, and Guaranta, 1963; and Willey and Strong, 1957). Definitions of guidance included in these publications vary, but most of them emphasize the importance of meeting children's needs. Just what needs of the child the school should be obligated to meet is a matter of considerable debate and must presumably be resolved in the light of the relevance of these needs to the course of personality development. Resnick (1955) suggests that one out of eight children in the classroom has a personality problem and he questions whether the classroom teacher can be expected to care for such children. If so, how? To what extent are the services of a specialist necessary? This kind of discussion is typical of writing in this field, but occasionally one finds quite another emphasis which all but disregards the concerns outlined above. Kolesnik (1958), for example, reaffirms the view that those responsible for modern education should concentrate their efforts on devising means for the production of orderly habits of thoughts in well-informed, disciplined minds. The writers of the 1962 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development likewise suggest that there are "watch dogs of education" advocating a concentration upon subject matter teaching (ASCD, 1962, p. 153), but we are hopeful that their assistance will not be needed and that classrooms will increasingly become learning and learner centered.

If we look for any systematic discussion of the needs of children to be met with guidance services we most often find only rather vague outlines. Some writers emphasize the role of guidance in assuring the best adjustment of the pupil (Hulslander, 1954; Froehlich, 1958) but the reader is often left with the impression that this adjustment results from the intervention of a specialist who is trained to adjust the human organism in much the same manner as a skilled mechanic tunes a motor. This kind of language reflects a philosophy of guidance which is a product of a particular view of man the learner, a view which sees him essentially as someone to whom something is done rather than someone within whom things are happening which require guidance and direction, but above all, facilitation.

In many instances the individual is truly "served" by the specialist; he gets something that he needs, something that he did not have before. This is obviously more characteristic of guidance services in high school and college, but because early thinking about guidance in the elementary school occurred in the context of established programs in advanced schools, concepts such as these are found in this literature also. Wilson (1955), in an early discussion of elementary school guidance notes that remarkable similarities exist in the programs he surveyed despite the fact that the persons responsible for the direction of the programs come from a variety of backgrounds and disciplines. This uniformity of programs is facilitated, of course, by a fairly widespread acceptance of what a guidance program consists of, the particular "needs" of the learner it attempts to meet, and the "tools" of the program which any self-respecting "technician" needs to possess and utilize. It is important to recognize that this is one way of conceptualizing guidance services, but that such services to elementary school children may also use a developmental scheme of needs which, though considerably more complex, may yet serve as a more adequate rationale for the guidance functions.

When we speak of a developmental program we must be careful not to think this synonymous with what was meant in an earlier day in educational circles as a "child development point of view." This cliché has been with us for a long time and what it meant to many people was simply another way of looking at needs which it was our obligation to fulfill. To make the child development concept synonymous with meeting the emotional needs of the child (via a quasi-therapeutic process) is too restrictive an approach and therefore a very real danger which we must endeavor to circumvent (Kranes, 1960). What we mean today, and what can become the back drop for a viable program of guidance relates much more to the encouragement of idiosyncracy rather than excessive concern for similarities and conformity.

The process of becoming within a new framework of the potentiality for human development is the theme of the ASCD Yearbook, *Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education,* (1962) which expresses this positive view of man very well. Kowitz and Kowitz (1959) state this ably in the course of their discussion of "the functions of guidance" (1959, pp. 58-59).

> In contrast to the emphasis on conformity and rules in teaching, guidance may be considered as the reconciliation of the uniqueness of the individual with the complex but necessary rules of our culture. The person who cannot vary from rules does not enjoy good mental health. Even the excessive striving for conformity may be symptomatic of pathology. A person who is unable to exhibit individuality is not a real person.
>
> Restricting behavior to the normal range is a special problem in guidance. In practice, this is best handled not by restricting, but by encouraging the development of desirable traits in desirable directions. *Again, it is seen that guidance is concerned more with developing individuality than with developing conformity* (pp. 58-59, Italics mine).

One important consideration is evoked by this quotation almost immediately. When so much is said about the exhibition of individuality and idiosyncracy we are required to consider how this transpires. We know, of course, that we are talking about performance. We are warned, however, that performance, if limited and restricted unduly, can fail to produce individuality, it is rather an expression of deadening conformity. If one does, or is helped to do, just what others do, performance takes the flavor of fulfilling requirements, and though it may be quite acceptable by group standards it nonetheless fails to take on the cast of self-assertion or the demonstration of individual competence. Competence, as used here, connotes difference from others founded in self-fulfilling exploitation of individual abilities, and it is through the development of this individual competence that we enhance the opportunity for individuality and self-expression.

It is imperative at this point that we emphasize the breadth of the concept of competence which we intend to elucidate. We are not speaking only of academic concepts and skills learned in the usual cognitive context. We are interested in the development of the total human being to the extent that it is possible to assist individuals to maximize their potentiality. We agree, however, with Combs (ASCD, 1962) that such guidance of development always takes place within the context of a perceptual field, and that behavior is mightily influenced by one's conception of himself. We include both affective; "non-cognitive" learnings as well as cognitive, since basically we are interested in all identifiable developmental changes we can facilitate in the individual's pursuit of personal adequacy.

With considerations such as these we begin to recognize the possibility of a rationale for guidance closely aligned with the work of contemporary personality theorists who utilize self-realization as a unifying concept in understanding the process of personality development. One useful and penetrating presentation of such a view is Maslow's description of the self actualizing personality (1954, pp. 199-234). His exposition clearly bases the matter in an understanding of individual uniqueness, talent, and capacity, and suggests that we must capitalize upon potential capability. "What a man *can* be, he *must* be" (p. 91). For this to take place, however, circumstances conducive to such self-expression are required. It is the function of guidance to facilitate such a process.

Although it is true that some very capable individuals, in spite of rather formidable obstacles, manage to find outlets for their ability and to sustain a high level of motivation in the process, such individuals are relatively rare and though their achievement is noteworthy it is probably nowhere near what it might be. Thus, what Jersild has called "indigenous motivation" (1954, p. 24) is not without limits, though it is a form of human motivation not to be dismissed lightly. Maslow (1954) suggests that self-actualization is the "full use and exploitation of talents, capacities, potentialities, etc." (p. 200). For such *full use* to materialize we are convinced that the combined best efforts of the individual and of those who can guide his development to this end are required.

Toward a Rationale for Elementary School Guidance

A major part of our task here is to fit the various pieces which comprise the guidance process into a meaningful scheme which is related to what we know about the nature of the learner, the nature of learning, and the nature of the conditions under which learning takes place. We are reminded again of Kurt Lewin's dictum that nothing is so practical as a good theory. Yet activists and "applied" people frequently shy away from theory for fear they will become absorbed in theorizing when they should be "out working". Noble as this may seem, the problem lies in the very real possibility of much lost motion and fruitless effort simply because the work done was undertaken with little consideration of its relation to other efforts on behalf of the learner. The need to define terms before taking action is found in the first report of the National Advisory Council on The Education of Disadvantaged Children, which states that many schools are using Title I funds of P.L. 89-10 for counseling services at the elementary level for the first time. They state "The time is ripe for leaders in elementary education and in guidance, to combine their judgments to formulate a clearer definition of the term 'elementary school guidance' . . ." (1966).

Tiedeman's review of the status of theory in guidance is replete with references to the need for such efforts to occur within a framework or context which is theoretically defensible (1961). This review raises again the question of the nature and function of guidance, but also asks about the relation of guidance to education and of education to life.

> Guidance is practiced within the framework of education by making each person aware of the process of becoming as the process may be available to him . . . of considerable relevance is implantation of the concept that education is not an end in itself. Education and teachers are to be outlived. Living and life are the more ultimate ends. Living and life require the *use* of knowledge in novel ways and the evaluation of the experience from use in relation to one's gradually crystallizing organization of self (p. 4).

Here again the purpose of guidance becomes the development of competence, a sufficiency for living, by utilizing the process of education as means to this end. The development of this process is facilitated by guidance; the skills, abilities, appreciations, knowledges, attitudes, etc., are seen as the raw material which the individual may utilize in the course of an interdependent contributive self-actualizing life in society.

Returning to our emphasis on the nature of the learner, the nature of learning, and the nature of the conditions under which learning takes place, we must conclude that the neglect of the first consideration is responsible for our embarrassing lag in theory. Emphasis in the training of teachers and guidance workers has been on the second and third "natures," principally the third. Although this has resulted in a corps of highly trained technicians who have been getting a big job done (and, incidentally, often done exceedingly well) it has left these folks without the grasp of the total picture. In many instances teachers have taught without a clear understanding of the relation their efforts bore to the personality development of the learner. Interest in the "whole child" swung their thinking over to the emotional and social adjustment of children, but these represented only two more facets of the child which teachers were to tend to and unfortunately this approach did not result in any greater grasp of a unifying concept of growth which could inform the many different programs and efforts carried on in the name of education today.

Guidance workers too have been trained to do a job but have not been given much of a theoretical orientation which could make meaningful what must at times seem a series of relatively unrelated procedures performed on behalf of individuals in order to understand them better. And yet with all our diagnostic and remedial techniques one wonders how much we really understand what it is we are trying to accomplish and therefore what a logically defensible sequence the helping processes ought to be. If our work was genuinely based on a learner-centered competence building theory we might see some more exciting innovations in classrooms.

The theoretical model we are suggesting here is an attempt to identify a concept of guidance particularly at the elementary school level. Such a concept may help the school accomplish even more because more people can understand the relationship of what they are doing to the goals the practitioner may have in mind. Tiedeman (1961) makes this quite clear when he asserts that "Guidance, by attempting to establish a hopeful and effective attitude toward self-in-world, lays the foundation for relatively significant action in time of doubt with well-founded reliance upon self in cooperation with others and upon one's intellect as trained through education" (p. 5).

Having said this much about the need for and benefits of a rationale for guidance let us turn our attention to the matter of the nature of the learner and see just where this takes us in our quest for theory.

A Learner-Centered Theory

We elect to speak of the "learner" rather than the "child" for a number of reasons. In the first place, our discussion will focus on the person as learner, which emphasizes change, movement, accomplishment and other concepts which are related to growth. We wish, consequently to see individuality in process, or as Allport and others have suggested, we wish to focus on personality as a process of *becoming* rather than as a state of being.

In the second place, learning is not a process which occurs only during childhood, but ought to characterize individuals throughout the life span. This idea has some very important ramifications to be explored more fully in later chapters. Briefly, however, the attitude of the adults toward themselves as learners who interact with the child, is of considerable importance to the child's learning. It ought to be obvious that to work more effectively with children, there must be a willingness on the part of those who guide learning to be learners themselves.

Finally, the term "child-centered" may have hurt us more than it has helped us. It has resulted in friction between "subject matter people" and "child-centered classroom people" which resolved nothing because neither party to the controversy saw himself as one individual among many whose chief function it was to facilitate the learning of the self-actualizing person. Just as we believe a good home is not a "child-centered" one but should be a place where two worlds, that of the child and that of the adult can coexist, so also we believe that a "child-centered" classroom or even a "child-centered" curriculum could to our detriment cause us to pay less attention to the individual as a learner within an institution established to foster learning and to over-emphasize certain affective qualities in the individual as ends in themselves rather than concomitants or by-products achieved in process. Reference here is to such things as the "happy" child, the child whose "needs are met" or the "understood child." These are the kinds of objectives that our child-centeredness has fostered. At the same time they are related to the issues that have divided educators far too long. We wish to urge that the varieties of forces involved in teaching or the guidance of learning activities might be united and that cohesive efforts on behalf of the individual learner be made within the framework of meaningful theory. We wish only to eliminate the irrelevant aspects of these child-centered concepts, there are many that are sound and important that should be preserved and extended.

A learner-centered theory asks of us first questions concerning the nature of the human being. These are, of course, philosophic questions and invariably controversial ones. For these and other reasons, the question is often skirted or reinterpreted so that it can be answered with descriptive data from observations and a variety of assessments. But we propose to make a few other assertions which describe certain very basic assumptions which anyone guiding the development of learners must at some time take into consideration.

One of the most basic ideas about the nature of the learner is that he is a relational being whose very growth and development is dependent upon fellowship, communication, interaction in depth with others. He was never meant to be independent or isolated but rather interdependent and social. Each of us is equipped for such relationship through the processes of maturation and learning and the degree to which we can relate adequately is a function of these two factors. We know, for example, that the ill-equipped infant has only the most superficial relationships with others, but that as time passes and competence develops, we become capable of increasingly deep and complex relationships. Or, to put it another way, one might say that our capacity for empathy increases. It is these same qualities which Gardner Murphy (1955) refers to when he says, "I would view guidance . . . as a way of . . . discovering capacities for social warmth and outgoingness, capacity to enjoy and work with other people, the capacity to become effective members of the community" (p. 7).

Our next assertion about man is that he is an active, dynamic, "doing" person. It is individual competence which emerges when we examine the quality of his inter-relationships. We find that being able to do many things tends to enhance interpersonal involvement, and it is this in turn which influences personality development. Actually, when we try to describe a person we almost invariably end up talking about the things he does or the things we know he can do. This array of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and appreciations might be called one's repertory or reservoir of competence and what is often referred to as "social adjustment" is in large measure a function of the size and availability of such a repertory. The assumption, of course, which is involved in all this, is that the learner is potentially capable in varying degree of many competencies and that this emerging power is the raw material with which relationships are built. From such an assumption, one hypothesis which emerges is that contribution to relationships or effective membership in a community should vary with the individual's competence. Now no one is without some competence, so all are capable of contribution, but our hypothesis is that the more the individual possesses, the larger the contribution he is capable of making.

A third assertion follows from this, namely, that mental health, psychological well being or good adjustment is related to individual competence and thus is directly influenced by learning and thus becomes an appropriate concern of guidance. As we mentioned before, a developmental theory gives guidance a most substantial and basic position; within this framework it ceases to be a happy luxury and becomes an absolute necessity. This assertion that competence and adjustment are related is explored in some detail by Foote and Cottrell (1955). Their term "interpersonal competence" fits our need well since it underscores the relational nature of man and his need for a repertory of skills if he is effectively to interact with his fellow man. They too contend that the components of interpersonal competence can be identified and that they can be developed, thus enhancing one's performance as an interdependent being. Similarly Tiedeman (1961) writes that "our theory must be a theory aimed at the generation of ego-strength not just its repair. Therefore, our theory must be intertwined with education, the institutionalized means of becoming" (p. 10).

The relationship between individual competence and adjustment has been tested in a number of studies. The question of causality will be difficult to unravel, but as we become more sophisticated in our work we may be able to solve some rather important issues in human behavior and development. A number of studies, including of course, such monumental works as Terman's study of genius, have supported the relationship of academic achievement and social acceptability (Terman and Oden, 1947; Blodgett, 1953; Grams, 1952; Lloyd, 1956). Another study reveals that negative attitudes on the part of parents (Shaw and Dutton, 1962) as well as negative self-concepts are prevalent among underachievers (Shaw, et al. 1960). In a recent study of Mexican-American secondary school students, it was found that achievers manifested reliably less hostility and more social maturity, intellectual efficiency and conformity to rules (Gill and Spilka, 1962).

It is important to examine findings such as these in a little more detail. We might, for example, focus on the poor achiever and speculate that these findings reflect his maladjustment resulting from the frustration which his failure brings him. Doubtless, this is an important consideration and a valid assumption. Within the context of our theory, however, let us focus on the relation of achievement to adjustment. The manifestation of reliably less hostility on the part of achievers would indicate that where there are individual competencies there are many open avenues of appropriate behavior and when a learner is busy learning or using his competence he has no need to display hostile behavior. We are reminded again quite forcefully that the school and its environs are the world of the individual for a large part of the day and it is to his advantage to be able to do well those things which comprise so substantial a portion of life during the school years. It should be much easier for a competent individual to live harmoniously within such a setting than for a less competent fellow-learner. Increasingly the importance of the school as a factor in the determination of a child's attitudes toward himself is being recognized and hopefully taken into account in what we mean by social adjustment in the school-age child (Donovan, 1959). Perhaps the recognition of the strength of the school's impact will issue in a program of planned intervention like that described by Davis (1962). His deliberate attempt to inculcate a feeling of worth in potential dropouts points to conclusions similar to those of the well-known Higher Horizons programs in New York City. Considerations like this place a positive and constructive light upon guidance and the school and lead us to see that its principal function is the facilitation of learning so that competence may be developed.

Another assertion about the nature of the learner is that he is a choice-making being. From very early in life he is confronted with alternatives and his growth and development are circularly involved with the decision making process. What he chooses at a given point is both influenced by and will influence in turn what he is. Human beings operate within the structure of a value system which gives us our priorities. "First things first" is a fundamental principle of human behavior. So far so good, but what are the implications of all of this for our present discussion?

Perhaps we had best begin by retracing our steps and restating our theoretical position. Man is a relational being who achieves self-realization through meaningful interaction with fellow human beings. To this end he is potentially capable of a wide variety of behaviors which become the channels of communication between himself and others. This then is the role of individual competence in life. Now it must be remembered that competence as it is used here refers to academic achievement, to knowledge and skills of all sorts, to appreciations, to attitudes and feelings, and all else that contributes to one's mastery of the process of learning. And it is precisely here where the matter of choice arises again. In many settings a number of behavioral alternatives are open to us; we may employ several abilities, which we choose to use is in part a matter of our priorities at the time, but here too we must not make the mistake of thinking that decision making in keeping with a priority system is simply a matter of a reasonable cognitive act. Our emotions and feelings have a way of getting into the process and if we fail to take them into account we are guilty of a massive oversight which can have some rather grave consequences.

We tend too often to forget that emotion is involved in the process of learning, and that the individual may choose (be forced by circumstances we know little or nothing about) to "emote" at a time when we would have him be cognitive. This choice need not represent (and most often does not represent) an effort on the individual's part to be difficult or disrespectful, it simply reflects his evaluation of things at the time. Though this may not coincide with fundamental priorities, the concept of man's freedom implies that he is free also from enslavement to his own value hierarchy and will when the circumstances "require" make improvisations and innovations.

It is for this reason that we mentioned earlier the "availability" of a repertory of skills. At any particular point in time we are influenced by what we are capable of doing. For example, the world's finest skier is not the world's finest skier when confined to a hospital bed. A concert vocalist is not a concert vocalist when suffering from laryngitis. A steady performer on a basketball floor is not a reliable asset when he is upset over an unfortunate turn in a campus romance. A bright child is not a bright child when the pressure to meet his parent's almost unattainable goals mounts to the point where he is demoralized. In any of these cases the skill or ability ordinarily employed is simply not available, and for all intents and purposes does not exist. Other abilities, e.g., to be ill, to be angry, to be fearful and depressed, have gained pre-eminence and are the qualities which describe the person at such time.

Now there are those who are troubled by the above because they insist that the other ability is there all the while, it is simply not being utilized. We have no argument with this, it is a reasonable position. There is one problem with it, however, and that is that it focuses attention on those aspects of the personality which are least relevant at the moment. It is such thinking about the child's potential academic capability which has led parents to ask why their child was underachieving, saying, "after all he's bright enough." It would be more accurate to say that under the present conditions he is *not* bright enough; his intelligence is simply not free to be directed toward academic learning. Unfortunately, the concept of "liberated" intelligence, is more frequently considered by theoretically oriented workers in the behavioral sciences than by those groups who are involved in the down-to-earth business of living and working with children. Perhaps teachers and parents both are less "practical" than they claim to be, and are really operating more often than not in terms of the "ideal" situation. It seems that this was in part what Gardner Murphy (1961) was saying to educators in his lecture to the John Dewey Society. In tracing relationships between rational and personal factors in the teaching process, he reminds us that primordial psychic reality involves both impulse and cognition. He warns against theories which suggest that rationality can be seized by direct assault. This is especially timely with the growing emphasis on achievement as though it were something which occurred independent of the person who achieves or who learns. Murphy suggests that while a crash program approach may attract attention by appealing to current public anxieties, more reasoned circuitous routes must be recommended by any systematic psychologist of personality.

What has been said so far about the learner as decision maker is this: that he be free to choose those avenues of experience which can lead to greater individual competencies, more positive personality building, and hence more effective participation in community life. Being free to choose, of course, implies that other needs are less demanding and other abilities are not being called forth to meet such needs. Concisely, this means that, in Maslow's (1954) terms, physiological, safety, belongingness and love, and esteem needs are in good repair and that needs to explore, discover, manipulate, and innovate can consequently have high priority. Therefore, if guidance is to be defined as the facilitation of growth and learning, it becomes the function of those who guide to be concerned that each learner have sufficiently sound social and emotional skills to provide a base for the development of the more academic or cognitive forms of competence (knowledge, appreciation, understanding, etc.) usually thought of in conjunction with institutions of learning and so necessary in developing the adequate personality.

A teacher's concern for the emotional development of the pupil (Farnsworth, 1955) exists not because the teacher is becoming more mental health conscious and sees the task of helping the child achieve emotional stability as an end in itself, but rather because teachers are to be concerned with learning and a learner must be liberated from preoccupation with emotional and social problems if he is to function optimally in the classroom. Thus for the teacher, the emotional life of the learner is of fundamental importance because in some forms it can be a substantial element in learning impotence and on the other hand it can be a potent force for meaningful learning (Rubenstein, et al. 1959, Kapur, 1958). Mortensen and Schmuller (1959) underscore the point made by Murphy (1955) that effective guidance requires that the individual understand himself and others and that the worker is cognizant of social needs and values. It appears that any developmental theory of guidance must take into account the full range of factors which influence the performance of the learner. His nature is to do; to be active and involved. The style of his performance is always idiosyncratic, but not erratic and inexplicable. The chapters which follow are built upon the assertions which have been made. Our first task is to define the guidance function within the context of our theory, namely, to view it as a process whereby many people perform functions, over the entire life span of a learner, which facilitate the development of the idiosyncratic nature of the learner. By idiosyncratic we mean that which distinguishes or differentiates the individual from others.

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Chapter 2

Guidance as the Facilitation of Learning and Development

A central concern or theme in this presentation is the importance of building a wide variety of competencies to personality development and the direct relationship which guidance bears to this process. We will recall from Chapter One that the competence we speak of is a very broad and inclusive thing which relates to the effectiveness of our participation in society, or in a more general way, to the totality of our interpersonal relationships. Our specific task in this chapter is to establish the relationship between individual competence and learning, and then to demonstrate how this process can be facilitated through guidance thus contributing to the development of an adequate personality.

Varieties of Learnings

We may confront the problem of learning and performance by recalling that learning is a change in behavior which persists and is not due solely to maturation. The "change in behavior" bothers some people because they insist that learning can result in internal alterations which might be antecedent to change and do not necessarily manifest themselves in overt behavior. Such a change might be a shift in values or a new appreciation. With all respect for the fact that certain other outcomes may have accrued to the student's benefit, the point here is that a teacher must ultimately judge learning on the basis of performance recognizing that he may not always measure the change or detect behavior which is in the process of change. The teacher then with these admitted limitations asks these questions—Is the student different at the end of the course than he was at the beginning? Can he give certain kinds of information, can he conceptualize, can he appreciate in ways which he could not before? These are the evidences of learning and not only teachers but employers, friends, neighbors, even relatives and parents judge us on the basis of such changes in behavior.

We are seeing increasing attention being paid to learning as performance. More and more we are becoming concerned about the manifestation of change as a relevant outcome variable. A number of long-revered methods of teaching are coming under objective scrutiny in an effort to determine whether they have any validity approaching that which they are purported to have. Interestingly, one of these is the method of teaching teachers (Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt, 1962). Another is that of teaching adults, especially parents (Brim, 1959). As we focus increasingly on outcomes as indexes of learning, we will recognize that the learner is not a repository and that skilled teaching should not consist of getting content into the learner in the most painless fashion. Rather we will recognize that the learner must put out or perform and that the repertory of skills which we help him to acquire are only really his as he puts them into use in enhancing of self and in the service of his fellow man.

Even to begin to accomplish objectives such as these requires some grasp of the inclusiveness of learning and a fairly sound idea of what the learning process is all about.

> What is clear to all who examine the learning process is that the child's intellectual potential will be realized to the extent that his environment offers him the opportunity to learn and to the extent that his emotional and social characteristics permit the acquisition of new concepts and skills. In an environment conducive to learning there is specific effort made toward capitalizing on the child's natural curiosity. Activities are directly related to the child's developmental level, and the material to be learned is presented in ways that retain and expand his enthusiasm for the acquisition of knowledge. To create this environment requires a thorough understanding of the learner; the process of learning, particularly the roles of reinforcement, motivation, and the development of cognitive structures; and finally, mastery of the subject matter (Levine, *et al.*, 1963, p. 7).

Some of the changes in behavior which are thought of here as the direct outcomes of learning might well be enumerated.

Skills and Controls

Among the most obvious learning outcomes which issue in performance are skills or new controls which the learner acquires. Many of the basic ones, of course, are developed before the learner enters school, but some of the more complex processes are learned at later intervals throughout life. A vital skill which makes an enormous difference when it is acquired with some facility is the ability to read. More inclusive competence such as independent travel within and beyond one's home community is still another example. The possession of such abilities makes a substantial and readily discernible difference in the behavior of the person. Developing control of impulses and acquiring increased social skill are equally important kinds of learning. We are concerned about the varieties of human competence *and* with their interrelatedness.

New knowledge is certainly an important outcome variable, but again we must investigate how it is manifested. In terms of our approach it is not so much a matter of what a child knows as what it is that he does with what he knows.

> Everyone is in favor of the learning process being guided in a way which results in productive learning, stimulates and maintains intellectual curiosity, and maximizes the utilization of the child's intellectual potential. However differently the proponents of various viewpoints in the controversy define such terms as "productive learning" and "intellectual curiosity," all would agree that they are utterly opposed to the sheer acquisition of knowledge. However much they may disagree on method and content, each would say that his goal is not only to have the child acquire knowledge, but also to think critically about it and utilize it appropriately in subsequent problem-solving (Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt, 1962, p. 119).

Again the emphasis is on the utilization of knowledge and not upon its storage and warehousing. True, some forms of utilization are much less dramatic than others, but whether impressive or mundane, it is the application of knowledge which is evaluated as one of the important competencies.

Attitudes toward Self and Others

Another important kind of learning which follows upon the former discussion is the development of positive attitudes toward self and others. Part of what a person learns is how others perceive him, and this in turn influences self-perception. It has been pointed out that a person needs early in life to develop the sense of being able to do well. Whether or not we do well so very often depends on the expectation which others have for us. To a degree this is saying that what I believe about myself is in large part a result of the consistent response of the learning environment which molds and shapes our opinion of ourselves, regardless of strong tendencies to maintain a high level of self-esteem.

Teachers and parents form the most influential element in the learning environment, and even if the child learns nothing else while under their guidance, he surely learns something about his adequacy as a learner. One of a number of studies which explores this dimension points out that the children's perception of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The child with the more favorable self-image was the one who more likely than not perceived his teacher's feelings toward him more favorably (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

Studies like this do not solve the cause-effect problem, but our contention here is that the attitude of the teacher both influences and is influenced in turn by the pupil's efforts. It is for this reason that those who would guide learning well should appreciate the role of reinforcement and motivation in learning. How we treat the individual learner results in a very important learning for him; and is closely related to his attitude toward self and what he feels he can do. If our treatment of him forces him to become defensive, we can expect that we will be generating much negative affect toward others which may manifest itself in a variety of behaviors which are predominantly unconducive to effective social interaction. What we are really doing, of course, is minimizing his potential to develop some rather essential ingredients of social and interpersonal competence, and by doing so reducing the opportunity for him effectively to participate in the process of education.

This leads us directly to a discussion of still another kind of learning, that of social skills. The outcome dimension of these, like motor skills, are more readily identifiable, for their presence or absence make a very noticeable difference. There are those, of course, who contend that teaching social skills is not the function of the school, but the point made here is that this is yet another important dimension of learning which inevitably occurs within the school setting whether or not the school indicates a commitment toward modifying behavior in this area or not.

Emotional Learning

We come to the area of emotional learning; learning to express feelings, learning to control their expression, modifying feelings and attitudes, and broadening the base of our appreciations and sympathies. Though this area of learning may seem a bit remote or tangential to some, it is still one of the areas in which we feel our deficiencies most keenly in everyday life. The inability to appreciate the feelings of others, the beauty of art, the ugliness of poverty and destitution, sharply reduces one's social effectiveness. How often we find ourselves on the periphery of an experience rather than in its vortex simply because we lack the appropriate attitudes and convictions which would permit us to be fully empathic. How we envy the individual whose emotional repertory is replete and who seems to be able to live so many experiences which we so often only endure! Competence in this area is clearly discernible and makes an important contribution to one's personal adequacy, and hence to one's social and intellectual effectiveness.

Values and Priorities

Our definition of learning embraces also values and priorities. These learnings, however, provide us with an excellent example of the importance of focusing on performance. Values, like motivation, must be inferred from our behavior. Thus, if part of the task of guiding the learning includes helping him to develop values, we need again to be concerned with the overt expression of such internalized ideals. Someone has said that a value must be prized and cherished, reflected upon, and repeated. In addition it must penetrate our living. "If indeed it is a value of ours, we may allot some of our finances to support what is valued; we plan our time so that the value may be experienced in our living; we may develop new acquaintance and friendship patterns which are consistent with our values. We do reading, writing, speaking, collecting, and many other things, in support of values. And finally: When asked about our values, we affirm them . . . We know what we are for" (Mimeographed MS.).

Now it must be added that individual competence in the area of priorities and values does not mean that we must all share the same values. True competence here consists of having a scale of values, having priorities, or at least polarities against which to order the events of our experience. Incompetence here can lead to disastrous loss of time and energy, and any individual who cannot put first things first is not likely to be a socially effective contributing member of society nor will he be able to cope adequately with the competitive learning situation.

Taking a "to each his own" attitude about values, though democratic and "safe" is hardily appropriate for those who would guide the learning process. It just happens that certain kinds of values are involved in education and these will have to be espoused by the teacher if he is to be at all effective. For example, the kind of time we devote to learning, the pursuit of excellence, critical inquiry and the exploitation of curiosity reflects the high priority we give to learning activities and we cannot possibly, nor should we, hide such a personal evaluation. In addition to the value of education, there are a few other priorities which are shared in a political and economic system like ours which we can hardly help but promulgate. The value that we place upon the individual personality is reflected in the way we place ourselves at his service (the teacher-learner relationship, for example) and will strongly influence the quality of the relationships which characterize most any learning situation.

These then are the varieties of learnings which contribute to total competence and the development of personality. Competence develops throughout the life span and in response to many stimuli internal as well as external. Within the confines of this definition, learning is a process which involves a person with many helping persons who sometimes facilitate, sometimes inhibit, but rarely have no influence upon the changes which are occurring in the developing personality. For this reason we must recognize that the impact of the different "helpers" varies over time, thus making the facilitation of learning something which requires of all those involved, the appreciation of the work of each of the others.

We should re-emphasize the breadth of the concept of competence we are embracing in our rationale. We are not speaking only of academic concepts and skills learned in the usual cognitive context. We are interested in the development of the total human being to the extent that it is possible to assist individuals to maximize their potentiality. This developmental view of guidance Combs (ASCD, 1962) always take place within the context of a perceptual field, and behavior is influenced by one's self concept. Both affective "non-cognitive" learnings as well as cognitive, are part of such a conceptualization since we are interested in all identifiable developmental changes which we can facilitate in the individual's pursuit of personal adequacy.

Fostering Learning

The April, 1965 issue of *Educational Leadership* is devoted to the topic of affective learning and to the necessity for the classroom teacher to structure an affective climate which is most conducive to learning. Much of this material will be considered in a later chapter, but a number of the issues can serve to elucidate the process of facilitation which is so central to our view.

As we discuss our concept of learning the question which continues to nag us is that of how such learning can best be fostered. There are, of course, many opinions on this subject, but all seem to agree that the feelings a person has about himself as a learner and about the conditions in which he is to learn, i.e. classrooms, teachers, schools, etc., influence strongly the outcomes we observe. Ripple (1965) reviews some of the research on the influence of emotional factors in classroom learning and concludes that there is sufficient cause to fear that we may overlook the importance of affective factors in the current emphasis on cognitive development in our schools. Focus on the individual learner, many-faceted though such learning may be, requires that "mental health" and "adjustment" be understood in relation to a process of development in which the interaction between the varieties of learnings is crucial and that the casual relationship between affective and cognitive elements is not unidirectional.

Most of the contributors to the journal mentioned above stress the facilitative contribution of affect to cognition. They stress the need for teachers to be warm and accepting since an insecure child is likely to be too busy with his emotional problems to bother with other kinds of learning in which he might be involved. At the same time we wish to emphasize the positive impact of acceptable performance and the chain of subsequent reinforcements (teacher commendation, peer approval, coveted grades, and parent plaudits) this sets off upon the self concept of the learner. Ripple (1965) recognizes the complexity of this in his discussion of Lippitt and Gold's study of the emotional structure of the classroom.

> Evidence is presented to substantiate the view that the interpersonal social structure of the classroom forms rapidly and maintains a high degree of stability throughout the school year. Children with high positions in this classroom structure show fewer behavior problems, greater social adjustment, and more stable emotionality. Children in low positions in the socio-emotional structure tended to have mental health difficulties. This was reflected in interpersonal relationship difficulties and in behavior patterns which disrupted the life of the classroom group.
>
> Further, the on-going processes of the classroom tended to aggravate the mental health problems of these children. They had continuing experiences of social failure and rejection in their relationships with classmates. Teachers contributed to this emotionally unhealthy state of affairs by paying attention to the social behavior, rather than the performance behavior, of low status pupils more often than of high status pupils. A host of questions are raised relating to an appropriate role for teachers to play in improving the socio-emotional structure of the classroom for all pupils. Current research by these investigators is exploring these questions (pp. 479-480).

The above suggests that positive or negative feelings about learning emerge as a consequence of one's cognitive gains or failures. A year earlier, however, in the same journal, Berlin (1964) describes the impact of performance on adjustment even more directly.

> I have become increasingly aware of the important therapeutic role of education for these children. Beginning to do school work does not solve all of their problems, but they do begin to feel themselves to be more competent, effective and hopeful individuals.
>
> The most defensive, withdrawn and alienated children with whom many of us have worked, children with psychoses, have proved the importance of educational measures as part of the treatment program. When these children begin to learn even the tiniest bit academically, they reflect this in reduction of their fears about the outer world.
>
> Similarly beginning to learn and to master subject matter in school is vital to the youngsters under discussion. Only through learning can these children begin to feel more secure about themselves in their frightening world. Only through acquisition of marketable skills can they earn a livelihood in our automated society (p. 446).

One is impressed with the importance of the teaching function and how much responsibility is placed upon the professional teacher. True as this is, we intend to suggest that the guidance of, and hence the responsibility for learning is also a function of other adults, most notably parents. In other words, the learning setting can include many individuals and conditions. In varying degrees these influence the direction and the quality of the learner's development. We propose now to look at the division of responsibility at greater length.

Burton (1944) entitled his book on teaching *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* Of special interest to us is the term guidance which implies direction, support, encouragement, reinforcement, and the provision of opportunities so that the learner may indeed learn. The function of the teacher is to provide optimal conditions within and about the individual for growth and learning to take place. But such a statement must surely apply to people other than classroom teachers. We repeat that it is the contention of this monograph that guidance—the facilitation of growth and learning—is a responsibility shared by any and all persons concerned with another individual's growth and development. We are therefore saying guidance functions are not to be conceived of as being the sole responsibility of school specialists. It seems that as soon as we define an area as the exclusive domain of a group of professionals possessing certain kinds of expertise, we are suggesting others may not have a significant part to play. If someone else is willing to take over for us in an area, especially if he suggests that by specializing he can do a better job and produce a superior product, we are often willing to step aside and allow him to take over.

An example of this is to be found in the attitude of many parents toward their children's education. With the rise of professionalism in education many parents got the impression that the school and its business was just that—the school's business. Some teachers and principals encouraged parents and other laymen to keep their hands off the process of education and leave these matters to specialists. Some parents, of course, were more than happy to do so, but others resented the almost cult-like attitudes among educators and wondered what had suddenly happened to teaching to make it so esoteric. The upshot of all this was that the schools lost one of their most valuable allies as the homes divested themselves increasingly of responsibility in the education of children. Fortunately, today this trend is being reversed and some of the damage undone.

Within the field of guidance the same thing has happened. Like many other professions, specialization in education was inevitable. When one of the specialties became identified with "guidance" we had a conundrum on our hands. How could anyone make a specialty of that function which pervades the entire institution of education? This would be like establishing a new specialty in medicine known as "treatment." Now, it is true that guidance specialists did not intend this, but over time the situation has become increasingly confused and has resulted in some abdication of their responsibility for guidance on the part of teachers. The predicament has led some even to suggest that the word "guidance" be abolished. Hoyt (1962) argues, however, that it should be retained. In doing so he specifically calls for a broadening of the concept to embrace the total program of the school and to permit again other members of the faculty to see themselves as "guidance workers." He feels that the word allows us to define guidance roles for every professional staff member in the school and thus to make clear that the school counselor is not solely responsible for performance of the total guidance function.

Guidance Functionaries

This brings us back to our original question about whose function guidance ought to be. Many now believe with Hoyt that it is the function of all professionals in the schools, but we are suggesting that it is also a major responsibility of the home, and of the community as a whole. The remaining chapters attempt to enlarge upon this thesis, but for the present we might just look at some of the people in helping roles to note in a general way what their guidance function is.

Parents

So much learning takes place under the guidance of parents that one hardly knows where to begin to discuss the issue. The atmosphere of a home can be conducive to growth and learning or it can be stultifying. The parent can see himself as a fellow learner, or as an individual who is through learning. We are only beginning to study the difference that conditions such as these make, but our hunch is that they are of far more critical importance than some even now believe. The importance of parents to a child's learning process becomes especially clear when we remember that learning begins at birth and not with entrance into school. When the child enters a school he has already had five years of fairly intensive education.

When professionals talk about early identification of strengths and weaknesses they feel bold in suggesting that kindergarten is the place to start (Martinson and Lessinger, 1960). Actually, of course, this can be and is done by parents long before a child gets into school, but what is desperately needed is greater coordination of effort on the part of home and school if we are ever to accomplish what we hope we might. The matter of encouraging thinking, problem solving, and creativity is not something which can be postponed until the child enters school without serious consequences (Murphy, 1957). Now again it is true that some of this kind of stimulation takes place in most every home, yet how much more might be accomplished if parents were consciously to assist in the process (Kawin, 1955). This implies, however, that parents understand the nature of their involvement so that they can function intelligently. The gap which exists between what the schools are trying to accomplish and what the parents understand of this is uncomfortably large. The world of the child in school is an unknown world to most parents. And if unknown then frightening and threatening!

Where then does this all lead? When we spoke earlier of a child already having five years of education before he comes to school we did not indicate whether such education was good or bad, but it seems logical to conclude that it will be either good or bad depending upon how the parents have been taught. The school must reach the parents of young children and enlist them as allies as early as possible. Parents need to know more about child growth and development and specifically about their role in the education of the child. The Educational Policies Commission (1962) made this clear in its report on *Education and the Disadvantaged American* when it said, "So great is the impact of parents on the attitudes and aspirations of children that parent education must be considered a primary public responsibility" (p. 30).

Similarly, some members of the Northern Student Movement who were involved in tutoring pupils who came from disadvantaged homes and were falling behind in school, reported that this particular group was seriously considering phasing out their work in tutoring, because they discovered that they could not overcome the influence of apathetic and sometimes downright hostile homes. What they accomplished in an hour or two a week was erased in minutes by the behavior of the parents and siblings once the child returned to the totally uninformed and consequently unsupportive setting from which he came. Here again the inescapable conclusion is that the educational program of a community must enlist the aid of parents and to that end enroll many of them in classes designed to help them maximize the learning potential which their children possess. Because parents guide the child's learning activities their impact must be taken into account by the schools. It is heartening to see parents becoming involved through some of the innovative progress made possible under Title I of Public Law 89-10.

Administrators

To many of us it appears that the school administration holds the key to the quality of education of which any community can boast. There is a danger, however, that administrators may see their major responsibility as providing educational facilities and programs, namely the institutional framework within which learning ought to take place, and overlook their central obligation which is that of being concerned with learning and the growth and development of the learner. The superintendent of schools in any community must literally symbolize learning, not in the sense that he be a person of extraordinary erudition, although that too is desirable, but that he be a person deeply committed to education and learning as a way of life. Education and the total development of all children must be a serious business with him. His image in the community must be unmistakably that of one constantly in the vanguard of its struggle against ignorance, superstition, prejudice, and spiritual impoverishment. His must be the prophetic voice and the crusader's spirit with respect to educational matters in his community and surroundings.

We hear much pleading these days for creativity in teaching and innovative thinking in the classroom. But what real chance is there for learning if there is little imagination in the administrative ranks? So long as superintendents, supervisors, and principals mirror the attitudes and the prevailing *Zeitgeist* in a community rather than being engaged in shaping and molding its climate, there is pitiably little which the individual classroom teacher can do! It is a tribute to many of them that so much has been accomplished in spite of entrenched administrative personnel, policies, and procedures in some schools to say nothing of the ultra-conservative school boards in some school districts.

We will have more to say about this later, but it seems that first and foremost, school administrators must be learners among learners, experimentally oriented and willing to venture forth with faith in the educational process, in the staff with which they have surrounded themselves, and in the fundamental goodwill of the bulk of the community they have agreed to serve. If there has been any important failure in this regard it would seem to be the lack of communication between school administration and community. We may have sold some communities on supporting good schools with many tax dollars, but we have often done so by stressing the importance of a good education as a way of making a good living later, rather than as a way of life at all times. It is a rare community and an even rarer school which rises above its educational leadership. If there is to be a really effective war against educational poverty in a community, supreme headquarters had best be in the offices of the school administration.

Teachers

In perusing the guidance literature of the last decade it is impressive to note how frequently reference is made to the teacher as the key figure in any guidance program in the elementary school. Actually Missouri (1937) published a monograph with a teaching oriented viewpoint nearly three decades ago. An early textbook in the field (Detjen and Detjen, 1952) bears the dedication "To all children who have problems and to all teachers who help to solve them." Arbuckle's book (1957) is centered around the concept of the teacher as the key figure in the guidance-counseling process, with one entire chapter devoted to the teacher as guidance worker. His 1962 revision points up the importance of the teacher in guidance but with less emphasis upon the counseling functions. Approaching from an interdisciplinary viewpoint, Kelley (1955) presents the teacher as the pivot in the guidance process rather than as an isolated worker. She shows how parents, counselors, and various community agencies can work together in an integrated effort. In a publication whose outline quite closely parallels this one, the position is taken that much of the guidance of children has always been done and must continue to be done by the classroom teacher (Driscoll, 1955).

Although there is no lack of reference to the teacher in the guidance role, there are few basic research studies on the role of the classroom teacher in guidance. In his review of 53 publications which appeared between 1950 and 1953, Arbuckle (1954) points out that although much of the recent literature on this question is opinion, it cannot be overlooked as being of little value, since it is often founded on "a hard core of solid, although admittedly disorganized, evidence" (p. 181). One of the leading facts to emerge from these writings is that "the teacher *can* function as a guidance worker . . . and to be completely effective *must* function as a guidance worker" (p. 181), not only in elementary school but also in the high school. One of the early suggestions about what might be done to help a teacher function more effectively was to provide the classroom teacher with a better understanding of her part in the guidance program, her responsibilities thereto, and her acceptance by the guidance staff (Leonard, 1955). Fortunately, we have covered much ground in the ensuing years. Low suggested that the teacher is acting in his guidance capacity when he attempts to learn about the various social, emotional, physical, and intellectual factors in the personality of the child (Low, 1955).

More recently we have seen some attempts to study this problem empirically (Stewart, 1961) and to provide some suggestions of how guidance in the elementary school can be implemented (Mathewson, 1961). The Stewart research makes the interesting point that guidance attitudes were positively related to general attitudes toward teaching. Such an observation supports our basic assertion that teaching and guidance have so much in common that they must be considered highly congruent. Hoyt (1962) sums up this matter quite satisfactorily when he says:

> The classroom teacher must be viewed as the school counselor's chief professional ally in the attainment of guidance objectives . . . The classroom teacher functions directly and actively as a guidance worker in identifying

> students in need of counseling, in student appraisal procedures, in increasing student self-understanding and understanding of environmental opportunities through classroom activities, and in follow-through of counseling carried out by the school counselor in terms of environmental manipulation within the classroom. *Teachers have both a right and a responsibility to be regarded as guidance workers* (p. 692, italics mine).

School nurse

It is not difficult to visualize the school nurse as a member of the team of specialists who provide particular services to the pupil, and this is the manner in which her guidance role is ordinarily conceptualized (Klein, 1959). But our concern here is with the facilitation of learning and the participation in the process of all those concerned with learning. Basically, it means seeing oneself equally responsible with other professionals in the school for a climate which is conducive to learning. To implement such a view of self requires that the school nurse cultivate a number of relationships of a very special order. The first, and most important, is her relationship to the learner. We have specifically omitted the term "patient" in order to emphasize that her work is carried on within an educational institution, and that not only what she does, but what she says, and who she is, is important to the primary purpose of the school. A nurse is providing optimal conditions in which learning can take place when she shows children the respect and kindness which convinces them of the fundamental concern of the institution for them and of its commitment to their basic well being. An illness, for example, if not too serious, can be curiosity arousing and its more unfortunate aspects might be overshadowed by nurturing the interest of the ailing learner in the complexity of bodily function. Although many nurses do participate in the health education program, there are many other occasions for stimulating children's thinking and fostering their desire to know. This requires, of course, that a nurse see herself at times as a teacher, and that she be willing and able to share some of her professional acumen with children in keeping with their level of interest and understanding.

Certain kinds of illnesses have special ramifications for learning and especially where a condition may handicap the learner, the school nurse can play a vital role. In keeping with our theory that competence is a vital ingredient in human interaction and hence in personality development, it is important for the school nurse to lead the way in helping teacher and pupil find areas of strength which can be capitalized upon in spite of certain serious handicaps which may exist. This is particularly true when limitations have to be imposed upon the learner because of health problems. It is then that other channels or avenues of performance must be opened if high motivation and positive attitudes are to be maintained.

But an even more vital role which coincides with our conceptualization of good guidance as the prevention of learning failure, is the role of the nurse in maintaining a continuing health appraisal of the learner. To do this job she must enjoy a good relationship with the other staff members in the school and with the parents in the community. Certain kinds of in-service training provided by the nurse will enable a teacher to evaluate the degree to which his classroom is preventive health oriented. Such training could also result in teachers being more alert to recognize symptoms in their early stages in children and thus combat the loss of classroom time which illness wreaks upon the learner. But from the positive point of view, both teachers and parents need the assistance of the school nurse in instituting good health practices.

In the ensuing chapters we will deal quite specifically with the importance of the increased home-school cooperation in the guidance of learning activities. Our thesis throughout is that the facilitation of growth and learning is the business of many people, and that the goal toward which they are all working, namely the development of individual competence, is most likely to be reached if they communicate sufficiently so that a team effort might result. The school nurse can be a very important member of this team. We know that parents are interested in the health and welfare of their children and will respond positively to any program designed to promote it. A series of parent classes designed to assist them to maintain a high level of family health and at the same time to acquaint the parents with the quite direct relationships which exist between physical well-being and learning could be a valuable and important link in the chain of supportive relationships which we suggest must be maintained if the learner is to develop his potential to the fullest.

School social worker

Most often when we speak about social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists, we think about helping fairly disturbed people in relatively serious trouble. There are, of course, such children in the schools. A very frequent symptom of such disturbance is irregular attendance, and the school social worker is often pressed into the service of this child (Berger, 1961; Nesbit, 1957). Other symptoms worth investigating are excessive suspiciousness, hostility, and aggression as well as exaggerated unsocialness. For these and other kinds of children and families already in difficulty we need persons experienced in diagnosis and treatment and we need them in far larger numbers than they are presently available.

A child with a pervasive emotional problem which causes him almost constant unrest is a child who is in no position to profit from exposure to an educational setting. Emotional disturbance or interference can very effectively interfere with learning and render the learner relatively impotent academically. The straightening out of such a mixed-up person and the setting within which he operates is often a tedious and lengthy process which requires professional skills well beyond that of the classroom teacher and other professional educators on the faculty. And yet, even so technical an operation ought not be carried out autonomously. Achievement of learning goals and the development of individual competence must be seen as the proper ends of this work also. The clinician is not treating children and families simply to relieve them of emotional burdens, but rather to liberate them for educational involvement as an important need to be met at the moment in the total life process. This child is not just a "patient" or a "client," but a learner who is severely handicapped and the function of school specialists is to participate in restoring him to a state where he can again profit reasonably well from the many learning opportunities which surround him at home, at school, and in the community.

Though the work described above is important and urgent, it should not be the whole function of clinically oriented people in the schools. The world of emotional and social adjustment, ego development, defense mechanisms, and other facets of the problem of mental health is not so enigmatic that it cannot profitably be shared with teachers, parents and other adults in the community. We have seen how teachers have during the past twenty-five years become increasingly attuned to mental health concepts (Beilin, 1959, Schrupp and Gjerde, 1953) and we would like to believe that much the same transformation in attitudes and understandings has occurred in parents and other adults. Consequently it is our opinion and that of some other professionals in the field (Beck, 1959; Lovell 1963) that school social workers return to assume as a part of their function a serious effort in parent education which could increase parents' understanding of the course of emotional and social development in normal children. Hopefully, this increased understanding will issue in more competent guidance of the development of children with concomitant increase of the likelihood of their successful achievement in all situations. In a way, such a program would be administered very much like that involving the school nurse, and might well be still another part of the broader guidance services of the elementary school to its community.

Actually, school social work is moving increasingly in this direction. Kelley (1964) points out that the focus has shifted and that "in the forefront now are programs for preventing delinquency, identifying and helping the potential dropout, and strengthening the educational accomplishment of the gifted and the underachiever" (p. 26). Later he points out that social group work methods are being adapted for use with parent groups, and although still focusing on the seriously troubled, it appears that it is only a matter of time until such group efforts join the prophylactic endeavors.

One of the consultative services which the National Association of Social Workers (1962) sees the school social worker performing is that of resource person for school personnel and parent groups. Such a function would involve him in discussions about parent-teacher conferences, discipline, special needs of handicapped children, social and emotional development of children and factors influencing children's learning. Some of these areas may be outside the school social worker's realm of operation, but where he can, he should contribute to the parent education program which hopefully will become a significant aspect of the guidance program in the elementary school.

School psychologist

Although in many respects what we have said above about the social worker could have just as well been said about the school psychologist, and it might well be that they can work together on the suggestions made above however, there are certain contributions which each can make somewhat more effectively than the other. The social worker, for example, will have had more training in family casework, while the psychologist will have had more work in psychological testing and evaluation, as well as in learning. Consequently one of the ways in which he can make a substantial contribution to the facilitation of learning is by keeping his colleagues abreast of the latest studies of school learning and consulting with teachers and supervisors on how certain of the most promising of the experimental programs in learning might be implemented within the structure of their own school. Actually, a well trained school psychologist (and by that we mean one who is knowledgeable about the process of school learning) should be able to spend a fair segment of his time helping inform the faculty about our present knowledge in educational psychology. Much could be done to our present classroom situations, to make them more conducive to learning, and an alert school psychologist could contribute substantially to the process if he saw this as an important aspect of his work. Unfortunately, his image of himself, is often excessively diagnostic and so he endeavors to do as much testing as he can, even though in so doing he is probably benefiting the few only minimally, while the majority whom he could be instrumental in aiding in larger measure profit not at all from his presence on the staff.

In the next chapter we will explore the role of parents in the education of children. Surely here we need people like school psychologists to teach parents what we know about early childhood experience, stimulation, and deprivation and its effect on later learning and development. School psychologists might explain the process of learning to parents in such a way that they can understand what they are to do for children. We need the school psychologist to keep us all alert to the matter of individual differences in children, and to help us find ways of capitalizing upon the unique strengths which every learner possesses. There is great need in the schools and in our communities for the guidance and direction, the stimulation and the prodding, that a properly trained school psychologist can provide. Such training, however, must somehow result in an image of himself as a specialist in educational psychology and school learning, with all that such concerns involve, and not just in the narrower sense of diagnostician, tester and referrer. It should be clear then, that a school psychologist too must see himself as a part of a team of individuals whose major objective is the facilitation of growth and learning.

Elementary guidance consultant

How appropriate are the guidance services found in high school for transplanting into elementary schools? Should the position of elementary school guidance counselor be established in most all elementary schools? If so, should such a specialist's major function be diagnosis, treatment, and referral of children having substantial difficulties? Or should he function primarily as an educational and vocational counselor, as he is most often perceived by parents in upper schools? (Bergstein and Grant, 1961). These were some of the questions which prompted this study of guidance in the elementary school. Our answer to the first question in the sense that such a person would really be a downward extension of secondary guidance counselor is "No." We believe, as should be clear from the above, that learners can profit handsomely from the services of certain specialists from the very beginning of life on through the school years, but we believe that these services may take on quite different forms and often function quite indirectly; in other words, that these specialists would not operate along traditional lines. We are further committed to the idea that many different people share responsibility for the guidance of individual learning and that a major portion of the role of the specialist may be to keep others alert to their contributions in this regard and to serve as consultant to them in the implementation of this process.

It is for this reason that we question the title "guidance counselor," or "specialist in elementary school guidance." Anything which might contribute to making the guidance of learning the special domain of a given professional group should be avoided. There is something to be said for "consultant in elementary school guidance," but another desirable title for such an individual might be "child development specialist." Levine, *et al.* (1963) states that, "the Child Development Specialist is an individual trained in depth in child development, learning, and clinical psychology, who is knowledgeable about curriculum and the school and community structure" (p. 27). This is, of course, a big order, but there is much need for proficiency in precisely these areas and in the order in which they are listed. Our discussion so far should have made clear the need for such training in the light of the stress we have placed upon understanding the nature of the learner, the nature of learning, and the nature of the conditions under which learning takes place. We will have much more to say about the role of the specialist in Chapter 5. Suffice to say here that it will be a different role in comparison to that usually thought of as appropriate to guidance personnel. We heartily endorse the statement by Levine, *et al.* (1963) in this regard, "Analysis of existing counseling and psychological services for elementary school children led to the conclusion that the traditional *roles* of school counselor or school social worker or school psychologist, do not provide the help which children, teachers, principals, and parents require" (p. 27).

To ask who of all these persons is the best resource person is to ask the wrong question. This can only invite the disastrous condition where guidance is delegated to a specific individual and is again construed as a specific function. Guidance is a responsibility shared by all who influence learning. Particularly do all have the obligation to exemplify an openness to learning and life. This will require come conscious re-evaluation of our purposes and goals and certainly some increased awareness of our role as learner among learners in a world which demands facility in adaptation to change and continuous innovation and inventiveness in the face of the new frontiers of human experience which a burgeoning technology and revolutionary social forces offer as a challenge to us.

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Chapter 3

The Role of Parents in the Facilitation of Learning and Development

We believe that parents share many of the functions which we have already discussed in connection with the work of the teacher in guiding the learning activities of children. Actually it is from his parents that the child receives his first guidance. Many who work in this field believe that the early influence of parents on children's learning is exceedingly strong and has for too long a time been overlooked by the professional educator. As we will see throughout this chapter, there is a growing body of research literature illuminating various facets of the relationship between parent behavior and children's achievement. The attempt by Drews and Teahan (1957) to determine the degree of permissiveness, protectiveness, and domination of high and low achieving junior high school students is an example of one such study. Sprigle's dissertation (1960) is representative of research focused on more complex interactional patterns in the fabric of academic achievement. While these studies approach the problem quite distinctively they point to the same conclusion: the importance of parents in the learning process dare not be overlooked. Recently, in a paper entitled "Elementary Guidance: A Developmental Focus," Kagan addressed himself to the importance of teachers as role models for children, but admitted from the outset that, for all their importance, they rank second to parents as the most important models the child has. Although eminence is a distinction achieved by very few, Goertzels and Goertzels (1962) assert that a most common characteristic found in the biographies of eminent people was parents who valued achievement and learning.

The purpose in this chapter is to describe the manner in which parents ready the child for learning, and support, encourage, and sustain him during the process. These functions are exercised, as had been said, already in the preschool years, but continue all during the school experience of the learner. Thus parents serve longer as learning facilitators during the developmental years than do classroom teachers. Without claiming that our treatment is exhaustive, we shall elucidate four areas in which we feel that the function of parents in the facilitation of learning is of fundamental importance.

Supplying a Sound Emotional Base

The words "love," "acceptance," "security" are surely among the most overused in the psychology of personality development and mental hygiene, and yet they are of genuine relevance to our discussion at this point. Probably one of the greatest assists the parents of a child can give him in the area of learning is to help him to be unafraid. Not to fear strangers, unknown places and things, separation from home, problems and difficulties, tests and competition, loss of status, and crowded classrooms and corridors is to be free to focus attention on those facets of the learning situation which are designed to foster educational achievement and attainment. To be free of such fears is to be secure in the love and acceptance of one's parents and others with whom one has any substantial and significant interaction. This kind of emotional equilibrium is prerequisite to learning. Without some degree of inner serenity and peace no one can profit from an educational experience, be he child, adolescent or adult.

Those who have worked with children afflicted with learning disabilities know only too well how often emotional maladjustment is an important component in the complicated picture which the child presents (Morse, 1962). Fear and anxiety, of course, are not the only emotions which can inhibit the progress of a learner. Anger, rage, jealousy, and even excessive excitability can interfere with the process of learning and very effectually limit the benefit the child can derive from any learning situation.

School phobia

One of the ways that emotional problems spill over into the learning situation is illustrated in the school phobias. Agras (1959) links this condition to frequent occurrence of depression anxieties in both the child and one or both of his parents. Another series of studies at Johns Hopkins suggests that school phobia is a variation of separation anxiety (Eisenberg, 1958; Rodriguez, Rodriguez, & Eisenberg, 1959). Here the child is overwhelmed by the school situation mainly because it severs his tie to the parents, who represent his principal source of support and strength. The fact that these are frequently really quite inadequate people who foster an unhealthy kind of dependency in order to bolster themselves only complicates matters further.

Attention problems

Another way that emotional factors display themselves in such a child is in his inability to attend to what is being taught. Most of us are aware that there is no such thing as an inattentive child. There are simply children who are not paying attention to the thing that we want them to pay attention to. A child may give the outward appearance of complete indolence and yet inwardly be a very "busy" person. As he sits and stares out of the window, apparently with his mind on nothing, he may very well be busy wondering whether mother really meant it when she told daddy last night that she was going to go back to grandma's for good, or whether his dad would be drunk again tonight when he came home and beat his mother as he did yesterday, or whether teacher was serious when she said he was stupid and would probably never amount to anything, or whether those big boys would be waiting for him at the alley, as they said they would be, or—well, one could go on indefinitely. The point is that this little boy is neither indolent, lazy, nor disrespectful, he has just got things on his mind which he perceives as more important at the moment than the reading or maps or problems on which the other children are concentrating.

Yet the sad truth remains, that although what is going on in the classroom is not the most important thing to him at the moment, it is the stuff from which achievement springs and without which he will have a hard time meeting the demands which any learning situation, no matter how intelligently guided will place upon him. Thus it is that the emotionally "busy" or distraught child gets into the bind if left unattended which soon adds fear of failure, fear of non-promotion, and fear of loss-of-status (Davidson, 1961) to his already too long list of worries, and soon finds himself inextricably mired and in need of fairly substantial professional intervention if he is to be helped out of his difficulties.

Attempts to unravel an intricate skein

The relationship between parent demands, children's emotional and social reaction to these demands and the subsequent effect all this can have on the learning process can be very complex. A recent dissertation (Orinstein, 1962) linking child-rearing attitudes and creativity could find no evidence in support of the hypothesis that restrictiveness and hostility as measured by the Parental Attitude Research Inventory were associated with low creativity. The same study, however, revealed an unanticipated finding of a marked negative relationship between high maternal restrictiveness and children's vocabulary. Even after controlling for mother's education the correlation was –.42. These results seem to support the contention that lowered intellectual efficiency is related to parent's restrictiveness. The skein which remains to be unraveled, of course, is what restrictiveness represents. What do restrictive parents do? How do they show it? What limitations do they set? Does their restrictiveness represent a deep parental distrust of the world and especially of the child's ability to cope with the world? As such, it would be still another expression of fundamental emotional disturbance in the parent which affects the child's emotional life and finally emerges as a distinct limitation on the development of competence.

Another example of the more complex relationship between emotions and learning appears in the article by Sperry, *et al.* (1958). Here seven unaggressive compliant boys with school difficulties are described as renunciating success. The authors suggest that the boys can derive some dependent satisfaction from school failures in response to deprivation in the home. Although the families appear to be fairly stable, at least the child being studied in each of these families was convinced that he could succeed only by failing.

How then are these fears or other emotional upsets to be prevented? Surely, there is no simple formula, but by providing for the child from the very outset of life a setting in which he can learn to trust, to count on others for support, acceptance and reassurance, we can do much to prevent these emotional difficulties (Krich, 1955). By associating discovery, curiosity, problem solving, riddles, puzzles and learning games with happy times in the family and mother's and father's company and attention, we can do much to establish a positive emotional tone in the general area of learning. If, on the other hand, the child's attempts to explore and to find out have most generally been met with disapproval or punishment, then he may decide to avoid these situations if at all possible, and if he can't avoid them then to form some defense against the anxiety which such confrontation trips off within him. With the numerous forms such defensiveness can take, most teachers and others who work regularly with children are very familiar.

There are a number of research reports which corroborate still other aspects of this issue. Parker and Reiss (1962) contend that reluctance to attend school often reflects separation anxiety. In two separate articles Hersov (1960) presents similar findings about persistent nonattenders. Teahan (1963) suggests that inadequate development in self-sufficiency and independence functions as a deterrent to achievement in learners of average or above average academic aptitude. Another report asserts that adequate self-concept is related to high academic achievement and that inadequate self-concept is related to low achievement (Fink, 1962). A study of sex, social class, and anxiety as sources of variation in school achievement supported earlier research findings that highly anxious subjects had lower achievement and intelligence scores. (Phillips, 1962) Wallach, *et al.* (1960) have stated the matter a bit more specifically when they report that chronic disturbance in parental and family relationships can result in cognitive difficulties for a child. The importance of an adequate basis of security for the learner even in the preschool years is underscored in the work of Crandall, Preston, and Rabson (1960). They observed 30 nursery-school-aged children and their mothers and one of the findings was that high achievers depended less on adults for help and emotional support. Many of these views are summarized by a statement in the report of the 1958 National Education Association Conference on the talented student, which reads, "If the child feels genuine affection and a desire on the part of the parents for him to realize fully his own potentiality, he is likely to achieve" (Porterfield and Schlichting, 1961, p. 297).

The above really only samples the literature which testifies to the importance of sound emotional underpinnings to children's learning. It is for this reason that we have singled out this need to lead off our discussion of the parent's role in the education of the child. It is, of course, easy for parents to miss its significance since it lacks the apparent relationship which other roles, specifically that of intellectual and artistic stimulation, seem to bear to the learning process. Much the same thing is true of the next area: critical though it is, it is frequently not seen as of particular importance to achievement. Yet parents facilitate learning by fostering healthy social development in their children.

Providing Adequate Social Skills

The education of students is in the vast majority of instances of a group undertaking. Classes vary in size, but *classes* are the almost universal pattern. Individual tutoring is the rare exception indeed. Because it is necessary for a learner to participate in the activity of a group in order to be educated, the possession of certain social skills, albeit, in some instances, even a bare minimum, becomes an essential requirement for success in school. The relation of social forces in the classroom to the learning process is asserted in a number of recent articles (Bradford, 1960 and Brookover, 1959).

This matter of the social adjustment of a child to the community of learners is not unrelated to the problem of his emotional adjustment discussed in the preceding paragraphs. It is very complexly linked because social competence leads to acceptance by others and consequently to feelings of a personal worth and adequacy. Further, the social adjustment of the child is not unrelated to that of others in his home. Liss (1955) Sociometric studies have frequently demonstrated substantial relationships between a child's acceptance by his classmates and his sense of belonging and subsequent comfortableness in the learning group. That this kind of comfortableness is related to achievement in reading, for example, is suggested by the account of Porterfield and Schlichting (1961), cited above. In their study of peer status and reading achievement they found a significant relationship between peer prestige in a variety of milieu and achievement in reading. Although more marked at some than others, the relationship held for all socioeconomic levels studied.

It seems quite clear that the sense of interpersonal competence, so vital to academic achievement is strengthened through experiences of acceptability and accomplishment in a wide variety of settings. Baldwin (1959) has suggested that such social approval may be more important as an antecedent condition to the acquisition of the need to achieve than it is as an on-the-spot reinforcing or controlling condition in the daily behavior of children. Here again the role of parents is clearly delineated. Already as a toddler, the child's sense of interpersonal competence is being formed. As he experiments with his newly matured abilities he will meet responses from the adults who surround him. Should these responses be essentially negative he may gradually conclude that doing things gets you into trouble and that trying to do things by yourself is dangerous and is better avoided. The nasty part of all this is that instead of developing the idea that "I can do well," such a toddler (without of course putting it into these words) may conclude that abilities are essentially bad. On the other hand, parents who approve of the early attempts their children make at using their maturing repertory of skills are contributing to increasing competence and at the same time establishing the link between social approval and the development of self-sufficiency and personal adequacy. The years two, three, and four are literally loaded with opportunities for parents to make a most substantial contribution to the child's future achievement. No parent will capitalize on them all; but there is undoubtedly much room for improvement in parent performance in this area. They, after all, are the first "others" who must accept the child as a person, and a large proportion of this acceptance is conveyed to the youngster by the manner in which they respond to his attempts to do things on his own.

Some of the important skills with which parents should be concerned during the preschool years, and of which they can approve generously are, of course, social skills. It is no secret that teachers, principals, and other significant adults in the community accept and reward certain kinds of behavior in children more readily than others. The child who comes into a learning setting incapable of socially approved forms of behavior is unlikely to experience the same degree of acceptance by his teacher that he would were his social skills of a more appropriate variety. What Clausen and Williams (1963) say about the disadvantage faced by children from the most economically and socially deprived segments of our population, is also true of children from other social strata whose homes have somehow failed to provide them with a point of view and a type of conduct which is compatible with our group educational practices. They suggest that these children are destined for difficulties for a number of reasons, one among which is that they will be "disapproved of by their teachers because of the offensiveness of much of their speech and deportment to middle-class morality" (p. 82). If his fundamental lack in this area serves to alienate him from his teacher and from some of his peers, he is for all practical purposes a handicapped child. The ways in which this handicap manifests itself vary, but essentially there is the same interference with the learning process which we spoke of in the previous section on the emotional status of the child.

Obviously this handicap operates whenever a child is excluded from the learning group in which he has membership. This exclusion can be either self-inflicted or ordered by school authorities, but in either case the effect upon the learner and his learning is about the same. Self-inflicted exclusion is summarized well by Miller (1961) as follows:

> The child who is inept socially may be so lost that he cannot concern himself with the concerns of the teacher. Surrounded by potential friends but with no feeling of acceptance by his peers, the child may be in the position of the street gamin with his nose pressed against the bakery window, seeing, smelling, but getting neither nurture nor satisfaction (p. 40).

Excessive social disruption of a classroom will result in another kind of exclusion, that which occurs when a child is sent out of the classroom or up to the principal's office, or both. Obviously, children who spend a substantial portion of their school day in such surroundings are not learning what they should be learning, but are probably learning instead that this is just another of the many places where they are unwelcome and likely to be punished. School becomes a threatening and foreboding experience which it is best to avoid as much as possible, and which one must simply "endure" until one reaches the age at which legal attendance requirements no longer apply. Having come of age this pupil "drops out" never to return. Actually, of course, he has dropped out long ago, and the day must soon be coming when we recognize that we do not have compulsory education laws but merely compulsory attendance laws. Most youngsters sitting around "serving time" in this way are deeply hurt from the continuous frustration they have known, and this inner anger is often at the root of hostile and aggressive reactions which precipitate adverse criticism of peers and teachers, punishments of various sorts, and sometimes expulsion from the group (Newman, 1957). That this problem tends to mushroom over time is attested to by studies of achievers and non-achievers which focus on social adjustment characteristics. In a study of secondary school students using the California Psychological Inventory, Gill and Spilka, (1962) report that achievers manifest reliably less hostility and more social maturity, intellectual efficiency, and conformity to rules. In a study of college students where the kinds of learning climates were varied, a significant relationship was found between sociability and achievement. The less social student showed more achievement in the lecture group, and the more social student achieved more in a small autonomous group (Beach, 1960). It would seem reasonable to conclude that the learning situation in the beginning school years will resemble the latter setting much more than the former, again supporting the idea that sufficient social skills are a most significant prerequisite to learning.

Before going on to the next area in which parents have an important role to play, we might add that through all of this we are not suggesting that top achieving children are the social "stars" and those who win all popularity contests hands down, for there are some interesting studies which point out that some of the facets of personality which we usually hold to be desirable are incompatible. For instance, Brim (1959) reports:

> A study by Ausubel and others shows that youngsters who are valued for themselves rather than for what they do, possess stronger feelings of security and self-adequacy, but score low in achievement motivation; in contrast, youngsters extrinsically valued by their parents, that is valued for what they do, while high in achievement drive, are to a greater degree insecure. A study by Dynes and others concerning the relation between level of aspiration and experience in the family, demonstrates that unsatisfactory interpersonal relations in the family were, for college students, significantly related to high aspiration levels, whereas satisfactory relations were related to lower levels. As the authors point out, "Since increasing attention is being given to the development of happy and socially well-adjusted persons by some of our institutions and social agencies, the question arises whether modifications will occur in the future to the success orientation of American society." This research may thus pose a choice for parent educators as to which of two possible values should be sought for the

> child, since the evidence suggests that it is not possible to achieve both in the same person (p. 92).

Another example of this is given by Goldworth (1959) who studied the effect of special educational grouping on social relationships. Her sociometric data indicate that the fast-learner program had a limiting effect on the number of classmates accepted as best friends. Child and Bacon (1955) even venture that marked success in school achievement may earn hostility for the child from his peers. For that matter, differences in parental attitude may influence the response of parents to a child's report card. Most of us cannot conceive of parents humiliating a child for an excellent report card, but it can and does happen. We will have much more to say about this later. It is important, however to remember that even peer hostility is really just the reflection of anti-intellectual attitudes in the homes of these children, and that competent achievers are ridiculed and ostracized because our communities and our homes do not value learning and achievement.

Since for many children, then, superior achievement and superior popularity may be incompatible goals, and since our concern here is to encourage both, let it simply be said that parents must endeavor to provide children with sufficient social skills to make possible participation in the learning groups which constitute American classrooms. There is no evidence that trying to "over-socialize" a child will give him an advantage academically in proportion to this heightened social sensitivity, as a matter of fact, such excessive emphasis on social graces and finesse may prove a hindrance, since it may reduce level of aspiration and blunt the drive of the learner for individuality and autonomous expression. This then is the kind of area in which there is need to strike a balance but still recognizing the importance of one's social life in his total development. Ability to interact effectively with others is in a way like most seasonings: both extreme conditions are to be avoided both too little and too much (in this case meaning too great a concern with how others will react to us) are undesirable.

Stimulating Abilities and Special Talents

This third area in which parents are involved in the learning of children is a realm better understood by parents as "having

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something to do with learning." This kind of activity planning on their part resembles much more what we traditionally think of as the education of the child; namely, his learning about people, places, and events, learning to read and to write, becoming proficient in some area of special talent like art or music, learning to do the fundamental operations in arithmetic and other similar experiences. Yet while these kinds of things are more frequently associated in the minds of parents with the educational process, it is these same areas in which many parents have religiously avoided getting involved. For one thing, some of them felt they did not know enough about these topics to be of any help (a good example of this is the "new" math), and in the second place they feared confusing the child and earning the disfavor of both child and teacher. As a matter of fact, there was much emphasis years ago on the importance of a parent's keeping his "hands off" these areas, for it was believed that such teaching could be accomplished only by trained professional personnel. Most parents heeded the admonishments; many, of course, learned their lesson too well; they decided right then and there never to get involved with their children's work in any form, shape, or manner. Perhaps such avoidance of involvement would have been all right, if it had actually been possible, but the truth is that by doing nothing (out of either fear or relief) they were demonstrating an attitude of disinterest which may have had its own deleterious effect upon the child's learning.

Actually, it is in this area where the cooperative and complementary efforts of parents and teachers can pay off in big dividends. It is here that each knowing what the other is doing and how best to support and abet each other's efforts can result in genuine facilitative action. This is the guidance function being shared rather than being seen as the exclusive territory of one or the other. However, before this can be done most expeditiously it is necessary for parents to have several basic understandings. One of these deals with the matter of a child's unique and individualized pattern of abilities, a kind of information that anyone wishing intelligently to guide the learning of a child cannot leave to chance. A second understanding relates to the concept of "on-going" readiness, which, when properly grasped helps parents with a good many of the missing pieces in the learning puzzle. Actually, this is to provide parents with some grasp of the learning process so that they can better understand why they are doing what they are doing in facilitating learning. It has been suggested that while parents cannot be expected to make a complete study of the subject they can be helped to understand some of the basic principles (Freehill, 1958).

Understanding children's ability

If parents are to help provide continuous intellectual and artistic stimulation for their children they must have some idea of the kind of ability each youngster possesses. They should have some idea of how bright he is; where his strengths are and where he is less capable. Now we do not mean that each parent must suddenly turn psychologist and do an "IQ" test on his child. But we do mean that parents have the obligation to observe a child sufficiently well to form an opinion about the child's general level of performance, so that their expectancies for him can at the same time be reasonable and yet challenging. This was underscored in a pamphlet put out by the National Education Association (1961) which was directed toward increasing parent's understanding of the measurement of children's intelligence. At this point we must emphasize the importance of looking at each child individually, for, parents are prone to compare brothers and sisters and to make judgments about the status of any one of them in relation to their perception of the others. These kinds of comparisons are frequently a part of the total picture in learning disability and are probably best avoided from the outset. Instead parents can judge the child from the way he responds to the myriads of learning situations which are constantly encountered during the early years of a child's life. Actually, of course, most parents do make mental notes of a child's performance, and with the help of a little reading in the numerous books about children which are available to parents, they are able to make a fairly accurate estimate of the particular level of ability the child may possess.

More important even than general ability appraisal, however, is an appreciation of a child's particular pattern of strengths and weaknesses. It is this variation which describes our uniqueness and which it is our function to develop. Teachers will attest to to the fact that often when a parent sees his child's achievement test results he becomes excited about the valleys rather than the peaks and tries to get the teacher to suggest ways that he can help his child to "pull himself up" in these areas. Now it is in precisely these areas that parents should probably be least involved. Instead they should be helped to focus on the child's strengths (Murphy, 1959). It is here where parent and child can enjoy the learning process together and where, because the child possesses competence in the area, there can be much positive reinforcement for both pupil and parent.

If parents attempt to play a remedial role with the child who has difficulty reading or who has a reading problem, he often becomes a "difficult" child, a "problem" child whose relationships with his parents are colored by the unpleasant experiences they are having together in relation to the youngster's disability. This in turn contributes to a growing sense of inadequacy in them both, worthlessness, futility and shame in the child, and guilt in the parent for having constantly to remind him of his failure by nagging, goading, tutoring, and correcting him. This can soon become a vicious circle from which it is extremely difficult to liberate a family. Far better it be avoided by parents devoting more effort to encouraging the child in the fuller exploitation of the strength he possesses. It is more than likely that when all is said and done these are the areas in which the child will later make whatever contribution he does to self and society. Furthermore since his ability to contribute is a function of the amount he feels he possesses, the broadening and deepening of areas of superior capacity become important avenues to the realization of a rich and meaningful life.

Understanding readiness as an on-going process

Another very important concept for parents to grasp is that of "on-going" readiness. Readiness is a term familiar to most adults and it is most frequently linked to kindergarten. We think of kindergarten as an experience which serves to ready the child for school. And this, in part, to be sure, it is. Many kindergartens administer to the pupils somewhere toward the end of the year a "reading readiness" test, and most frequently the results are passed along to the child's first grade teacher to help her better to understand his present status in being ready to benefit from instruction in reading.

Readiness is a term, however, which goes far beyond this special meaning. The idea of readiness relates to the fact that all learning builds upon previous learnings and its importance to the learning process is difficult to overestimate (Amatora, 1957). The student who lacks the prerequisites for a particular course will probably have difficulty profitting as much from the experience as he would have had he been better prepared. A child who can distinguish the basic colors has an advantage over his companion in kindergarten who cannot. The good teacher sounds out her group to determine whether they are ready for the new learnings she plans to introduce. All of these activities fall within the scope of the term "readiness" and it is for this reason that we are all involved in this on-going process of preparing the learner for the next learning task.

It seems that there are two broad categories of readiness experiences; one, experiences of a very general sort, and two, those which are quite specific to a given instructional area. In one sense, of course, everything we have spoken of so far under emotional and social adjustment can be subsumed under the heading of general readiness, but to use so broad a brush deprives the whole concept of any useful meaning. By general experiences here we mean such things as acquaintance with a library in contrast to a specific understanding like knowing the location of special collections in the library or the various instruments in the orchestra. The difference is not that parents can provide general readiness while teachers the specific, but that many more parents can provide general experiences while only limited numbers of parents can provide many specific ones. It is reasonable to hope that most parents can provide an opportunity for their children to go to the library during their preschool years, but it is unlikely that any but a home which is extremely musical will acquaint a child with the families of musical instruments.

In addition to discussing the two kinds of readiness with which a child can be provided, we should consider the two principal avenues by which these experiences can reach the youngster. A child can be confronted directly with people, places, things, and the ideas that surround these, or he can experience many things vicariously. Years ago a child probably had a larger proportion of direct experiences before starting school simply because the media for mass communication did not exist. However, even though the amount of vicarious invasion of the cognitive world of the child has increased enormously in the past twenty-five years, the rapid advances in transportation and the increasing amount of leisure available to families has likewise increased opportunities for children to be more broadly acquainted with all sorts of things via direct experiences. No matter how you look at it, the child of today should be at an immense advantage over the child of fifty years ago, just in terms of the kind of knowledge he can bring to a particular learning situation. Whether or not he has been helped to capitalize on this potential advantage is the burden of our discussion at this moment, for this is squarely a responsibility of his parents and other significant adults who care for him during the formative preschool years.

At this point, one might well ask what some of these experiences are which parents can and, we think should provide. For the sake of clarity we shall try to present direct experiences first and then vicarious ones, but this does not imply that the one is more common or more important in the formation of understandings in the child. Doubtless, in some instances both kinds of experiences contribute to the child's personal meaning.

Direct experiences which ready the child for learning

A basic, yet easily overlooked, ingredient is language itself. Words symbolize ideas and without ideas one cannot think. Furthermore, thinking is facilitated when we can bring to the process an ample and precise vocabulary. There is a growing body of evidence that verbal stimulation early in the life experience of the child has important consequences for the rate and extent of mental development and for this reason alone it is an essential contribution which the home should make to the child's intellectual development long before he enters elementary school (Hess, 1964).

Talking to a child and listening to him in return are vital, but how we talk and how we listen must be clarified. There is little, if any, need to simplify our language in talking to a child. Most adult conversation is well within the range of the child's comprehension and what a youngster misses because a particular word or phrase is strange to him he can usually obtain from the context. At the same time, however, that we avoid oversimplifying our language all of us ought to strive for greater precision in our choice of words. The reason for this is obvious: words are the symbols of facts and ideas and these are the raw materials of reasoning and problem solving. A child who from the outset of life is exposed to language in generous quantity and of good quality lives in a setting conducive to intellectual development. Parents who provide such a backdrop of language are providing vital intellectual stimulation of a most dramatically direct sort.

The coin of language, however, has two sides. Parents must also learn to listen, for in so doing they encourage active verbalization. Language is basic to communication, but communication is a two-way street requiring us to give as well as to receive. But listening is a skill which must be cultivated. It does not come easy; and listening to children is especially challenging. The very young child, for example, carries on a sort of "collective monologue." That is, he talks at adults, not with them. He talks really just for the sake of hearing himself talk. He may address questions to his listener, but he is not really interested in answers. His eagerness to experiment with language must be understood if we are to avoid discouraging him by totally inappropriate responses. As the years progress, parents need to understand that children's interest in conversation may close abruptly and we do well to be prepared for and accepting of discontinuance. Furthermore, the parent who knows how to listen to children realizes that the process of speaking is more vital than the accuracy of language usage and that we do not encourage communication if we pounce on every opportunity for criticism of tense, order, or syntax. To learn to listen without undue criticism of the mechanics of language is an art indeed, but one most worth cultivating. Surely nothing discourages communication more effectively than parental criticism of the form of language. Ultimately it becomes clear to the speaker that the hearer is disproportionately concerned with how something is being expressed, rather, than as the speaker would hope, with what he is trying to say. Grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and articulation will come in time, in response to adult models. The good listener contributes to the process of intellectual stimulation by showing genuine respect for the thought and message which the child is attempting to convey.

Thinking: a family activity

In discussing language, we have alluded to the relationship between words and thought. Stimulating a child to think is another important contribution of a general nature which parents can make to a child's intellectual development.

One means of stimulating thinking flows directly from the natural curiosity of children. Because we are endowed with remarkable abilities which enable us to explore our world, children in whom the ability is present manifest a tendency to use these abilities. We can not only see, we have a tendency to look. We are not alone able to hear, we tend to listen. It is safe to say that all children possess a curiosity about their world, however, it is equally certain that some are discouraged in their efforts to delve into the secrets and explore the intricacies which surround them by parents who treasure orderliness and abhor mess and clutter, who value peace and quiet in their "at home" hours and resent interruption and distraction by the child and his seemingly endless questioning. So much potential intellectual development is stunted by the "do not disturb" parent.

Fostering intellectual curiosity requires patience and skill, and especially the realization of the importance of all of this to the child's mental growth. Perhaps more than anything else, a parent needs to be a good listener and a good questioner. A child's curiosity does not need to be met with answers given by the parent. His questions need only to be respectfully and thoughtfully received so that the child is reassured of their legitimacy. A response like, "That's a good question, I wonder how we could find out?" is often more valuable in sponsoring further exploration than a pat answer. Note, however, that the parent says "we" and not "you". He includes himself in the quest and joins the search. Sometimes this means an expenditure of time and energy; at other times, the assurance of our abiding interest in his learning is all the child requires. This does not mean that a parent should never give a direct answer. With preschool children, this is often indicated. However, as questions become more complex and the interests of children roam beyond the limits of parents' ready knowledge we will need to help the child rephrase the question and pin point precisely what it is he wishes to discover. This can then be followed by suggestions on how a solution might be found. This acceptance of a problem as "our own" and a willingness to be a part of the answering team establishes a climate conducive to learning and achievement. To suggest that the child go elsewhere with his problem, and particularly to intimate that this is why we have schools and teachers is to compartmentalize the educational process and to deny our children a very basic component in learning, namely, the reinforcement which parental interest and concern affects.

Today we learn and read much about the cultivation of creativity and although most people have the vague feeling that this is a good thing, few of us feel competent in this area. In part this is because we have not studied the concept of creativity and asked what its basic components are. Creative thinking involves among other things, the novel juxtaposition of ideas, and this means that individuals must be sufficiently liberated thinkers to break out of the mold of traditional and stereotypic thinking. At this point, a number of avenues are open to the observant parent.

For one thing, creative thinking emphasizes the utilization of existing structures, materials and knowledge in the solution of problems or the improvement of conditions. To sit back and suggest that since we are not properly trained, nor do we possess the appropriate tools, or have available the correct materials, therefore, we would best bring in someone else to solve a particular problem, is to avoid an opportunity for creative intervention or inventiveness. The fact that years ago people spoke about repairing a Model T Ford with a pair of pliers and some baling wire testified more to the willingness of individuals to accept the problem as their own and improvise a solution, than it did to the elementary nature of the early automobile.

Another important element in creativity is the disposition toward improvement. To be completely satisfied with a procedure, an object, or even an idea is to court intellectual stagnation. The very nature of the intellect is opposed to such quiescence and equilibrium. Ordinarily, our mental processes work over the content of an idea, comparing it to other ideas, making judgements about what it finds and revising the concept accordingly. The evaluative process by which ideas are continuously examined and refined is a natural exercise of human intelligence.

One of the more subtle forces in our society which may be related to our limited creativity is our unwillingness to give too much credence to a future looking view of life. The here-and-now, not the future is stressed. As a result we find a growing attitude of "that's good enough," "it will do, let's get on to the next thing," which leaves little room for any serious consideration of improvement. The status quo is accepted since time does not permit much experimentation and innovation.

With all respect to the mental health writings which emphasize living from day to day, avoiding the extremes of guilt and depression due to past bungling as well as the unrealistic detachment of living in a world of daydreams about how it will all turn out some day, we would warn against a hasty and uncritical interpretation of these positions. Surely, a healthy human being is conscious of his past, and should be able to learn from and make a salutary adjustment to previous mistakes. At the same time there must be an anticipatory attitude toward a future which we hope will be an improvement upon the past. To this end, the healthy person is willing to postpone gratification, to wait upon the outcome of further preparation, experimentation, and testing in order to have an improved situation. We admit, of course, that this characteristic is less frequently discerned in people today than we might like it to be, and that its rarity may be related to some of the pressures for conformity and to our growing tolerance of mediocrity.

Still another direct means of stimulating children's intellectual development is travel. Today, families frequent areas separated by great distances from their homes, and can make these trips serve the learning process if they choose to do so. We know that learning proceeds from the known to the unknown, from the concrete to the abstract. Direct experiences with the climate, geography, products and people of the other places serve to broaden the background which the child brings to the learning situation and thus contribute to a more rapid and intensive assimilation of the new material.

To some extent, of course, we can travel vicariously with the aid of motion pictures, books and magazines. Interestingly, however, as soon as we get involved with vicarious means we are confronted with reading and its special significance in the realm of the intellectual stimulation of young children. So vital is reading ability that parents, if they could do nothing else, should do everything in their power to nurture its development in their children.

Reading and vicarious experience

Is not the facilitation of reading a highly specialized area—an area in which teachers would rather not have parents interfering? Don't we hear it said that many children encounter difficulties reading because there was too much pressure on them to learn to read too early?

Unequivocal answers to these questions cannot be given. Many reservations must be made, many terms defined and many practices examined. But current opinion appears to underscore the importance of parents' involvement in a child's learning to read. The support and assistance which parents provide in this area is in all probability one of their most important guidance functions. Let us look at some of the procedures involved.

Should a parent teach his child to read? If we mean whether a parent should drill his child in phonics, in rote memorization of the alphabet, or even in the "look and say" method sometime during the preschool years, the best answer is a negative one. In other words, under ordinary circumstances there is no need for parents to "play" teacher with their own child. But this limitation does not prevent parents from playing a substantial role in the child's learning to read, nor from their playing such a role in the preschool years.

Infancy is not too early to begin to acquaint the child with the world of reading and books. Being read to as a young child associates pleasantness, security and the world of words, pages and pictures, so that from the outset very positive connections are made between these in the mind of the child. In toddlerhood trips to the library become possible and a new source of pleasure and outlet for activity is found. Children's librarians have a talent for making little brothers and sisters of their clientele feel at home and thus many a fortunate youngster makes an important friend and discovery early in life. Story hours, films and other library programs for children are all designed to whet appetites for reading, and yet none of this can reach the child whose parents are uninterested or uninformed and consequently fail to involve their children in such activities.

In his book, *Slums and Suburbs*, Conant (1961) underscores the importance of the family's attitude toward reading.

> In one school I visited, the teachers themselves, mostly Negroes, felt that the only way to improve the reading of the children in the first three or four grades was to do something with their mothers. If the head of the family

> unit could be located and brought into communication with the school, attempts were made to stimulate an interest in newspapers, magazines and possibly even books. One of the troubles, the teachers said, is that when the children leave the school they never see anyone read anything — not even newspapers. "If we could change the family attitude toward reading, we could accomplish much." With this statement one must heartily agree and likewise agree that even a slight change, which was all that was expected, would probably be reflected in the reading ability of the children (pp. 24-25).

Before leaving the discussion of the parents' role in stimulating intellectual abilities and areas of special talent we should consider the equally important process of keeping things going once you set them in motion. All parents use varieties of incentives and rewards, but parents differ in their awareness of their involvement in the process and also with regard to the techniques they employ. Though most of us are aware that some methods of motivating children are better than others, we do not often stop to sort out our ideas in this area.

First of all, let us consider the distinction between motives and incentives. An incentive is a mechanism which we apply in order to goad an individual to achieve a goal or behave in a certain way. The dictionary lists as synonyms such words as stimulus, spur, incitement and inducement, and as we reflect on this, two ideas seem to emerge. The first is that these are conditions applied to the learner from outside, they are a form of manipulation; and the second is that they are a means to an end, not an end in themselves. These things can become confused and lead to trouble for parents who may have had only the best intentions. For example, such a thing as punishment, the fear of which many parents believe is a useful incentive to a child to behave, may become the goal which the child actively seeks, if it is the only way in which he can get a rise out of his folks. Another example of means and ends confusion is found in the area of school marks. Grades for achievement are incentives, they are supposed to spur learners on, yet they can replace the real learning goals and become ends in themselves. When this happens, of course, the learner may employ any and all means, fair or foul, to get a grade and in doing so, may learn nothing except how one gets a better grade.

To return to the distinction between motives and incentives, it should be clear that what we are really trying to accomplish is the wish to learn because learning is a satisfying process and one that brings with it valued goals. The motivation to learn should, ideally, be a response to the perceived value of the learning experience and the desire to make that value one's own. Hopefully this drive from within will gradually replace the quest for various incentives mentioned above which do play an important role in pointing the child in the appropriate directions early in his career as a learner.

Once, however, a child is progressing as he ought, how do we help him to sustain his interest and effort? This is a process of reinforcement and it operates principally by means of a system of rewards. Now, as we have already said, it is our ultimate aim that learning should be its own reward, but actually this is often not the case in elementary school age children. Their efforts are in part dependent upon reinforcement from parents, teachers and peers, and, as we well know, each of these sources of influence can have a somewhat different effect upon a child's motivational system. As a matter of fact, as the child grows older he may experience considerable discrepancy in the reward schedules of his parents and his peers, and this may, as a consequence, force him to make some decisions based on a scale of personal values or priorities.

But what kind of rewards can parents employ? Let us assume that we agree to the learner's need for reinforcement and proceed to the question of how we can best provide it. Most often we think of approval in this connection, believing that if a child behaves in a certain way and we praise him for it he will be motivated to repeat the particular form of behavior. There is, of course, much evidence to support this assumption, but it is important to understand the underlying reasons for the connection if we are to utilize it wisely and avoid a ritualistic and impersonal application of a rule.

To reward a child in an automatic and unthinking manner is an experience of insincerity and such gratuitous applications of approval are next to worthless if not actually of negative influence. The child knows that we don't really know enough about the situation to comment intelligently and cannot help but be hurt by our unspoken suggestion that his efforts do not deserve careful attention and scrutiny. The hollow "That's just fine," or other fatuous comment does not serve any purpose other than to convince the learner that we couldn't care less. Some parents try an elaborate system of monetary and material rewards to encourage continued good performance in their children. Aside from the obvious fact that this can become an extremely costly business as children become better bargainers, we know and children know that this is often one of the most painless and easiest ways for us to show approval. It is not surprising then that Sivertsen (1957) found material rewards to be less important than parental attitudes in affecting the aspiration level of children. This can, and sometimes does, boil down to a crass business of paying for grades or literally bribing children to be good and most of us, even some parents who use this method, are repelled by the idea when we examine it carefully.

What then is a truly rewarding experience for a child? Interestingly, the answer to this is related to what we said earlier in connection with our reading to children. There is nothing more valuable that we can use as a reward than our own time. The most precious thing we have to give to children is ourselves. To give ourselves means to put ourselves at the child's disposal, to listen to him carefully when he talks about his school experiences, and to give him our undivided attention as he reads to us out of his new book or from the theme he has just spent a half hour composing. Our own genuine participation and companionship in his learning endeavors is the greatest reward because it costs us time, and this is a commodity to which none of us can really attach a price tag. Weigand's (1957) study of 17 unsuccessful and 35 successful college students corroborated this when he found that parental reinforcement was a positive factor both in the student's academic achievement and in the solution of his personal problems. Carrillo (1957) compared 50 good and 50 poor readers of normal or higher intelligence in the middle grades and documented the importance of encouragement and parental interest in the child's school life.

But there is still another area of learning in which the parent plays a critical role. So far we have been talking about quite specific learning areas, but now we look at one which is much more general and pervasive.

To Develop a Scale of Values for the Child

What Conant said about reading can be extended to other areas of achievement. The attitude of father and mother, their opinion and evaluation of experience, especially during the formative years, is of critical importance in the formation of children's values. Dyer's (1958) research upholds two hypotheses which he derived from a review of the literature, both of which assert that parents' attitudes have a most vital formative influence on the attitudes of their children. This process by which the convictions of one generation are conveyed to the next has been referred to as the "subsidiation principle." In the context of prejudice (which has much in common with our concern here) this has been defined as "a tendency to acquire ethnic attitudes to conform to whatever dominant frames of value an individual has." It is because our own feelings about the value of certain things in our life are so contagious that both parents and teachers influence the learning process enormously by precept and example of interest and enthusiasm, in all probability affecting it more through these means than by exhortation.

The work of Harris, *et al.* (1954) in the area of children's responsibility points in this same direction, albeit by eliminating opposing views rather than by directly supporting that developed above. Investigating popular assumptions that children are "trained" in "responsibility" by doing tasks in the home, they conclude that "there is little evidence that the (household) routine tasks . . . are associated with an attitude of responsibility" (p. 32). This finding, of course, came as something of a shock to those who felt that chores were "good" for children, in the sense that they built character, but when we reflect on this for a moment we can see that a trait as complex as responsibility had probably better not be the product of a relatively simple and easily contrived household routine. This is not to say that chores are worthless, for they do lighten the load on mother, but rather that their value is precisely that and not to be found in their long range influence upon character. The qualities which combine to produce responsibility are many and complexly linked to maturational and experiental processes involving the continuous interaction of the child with his parents and other significant adults.

Furthermore, the transmission of attitudes is not markedly influenced with the passing of time. A study of children between fourth and tenth grades produced evidence that the impact of parental example does not necessarily wane as the years pass (Bowerman and Kinch, 1959). Thus the parents' attitudes toward learning and the learner are important not only in the preschool and primary school years but throughout the later years of the child's educational career.

It seems that there are at least three areas of value orientation in which the parents have particular obligation. Part of their function in the education of their children is to develop attitudes in them which are conducive to learning and growth and simultaneously to provide a frame of reference or rationale within which life and work can have meaning. Let us consider each of the three areas separately, realizing, of course, that they overlap to some degree.

Toward learning

It is hard to underestimate the significance of parental attitudes toward learning, schools and teachers. These are the conditions which "set" the child for his encounter with the educational world. Whether he faces it eagerly, seriously, resignedly, suspiciously or indifferently is largely a function of the dominant view of the parents with whom he identifies. The attitudes and feelings which parents hold may be highly visible. Then again they may be hidden, even to themselves. A recent study, which among other things revealed middle-class father's attitudes toward future vocations for their sons, is a good example of how subtle the bias against the schools may be. The fathers adopted the view that most any white-collar managerial or professional occupation for their sons would be acceptable to them, except teaching (Aberle and Naegele, 1952). Though the considerations given by the fathers for this decision were in part economic, there is a hint that "many a middle-class father does not consider the academic role to exemplify appropriate masculine behavior" (p. 371). This could well carry over into the manner in which they would talk over school-work, teachers and education in general with their sons. This research sheds important light on such studies as Bene's (1959) which asserts that there is a social class difference in attitude toward education in favor of the middle class. It may be possible that the greatest part of this difference is accounted for by the girls while middle-class boys may not be as happily endowed attitudinally as we have believed.

Along similar lines, (Ochroch and Goldsmith, et al., 1959) has suggested that learning disturbances among delinquents can be grouped into (1) those for whom the learning difficulty is related primarily to their negative attitudes, values and self-images; and (2) those in whom subtle impairments have occurred and for whom the real difficulties have a reciprocal, reinforcing relationship with the negative attitudes. Bertrand's (1962) study of school attendance further buttresses the argument. He finds that families of dropouts do not enjoy a high occupational status and that the occupational and educational achievements of family members are relatively low. The assumption is made explicit that educational values are transmitted to children somewhat in proportion to the education of parents. It is suggested that parents of drop-outs participate less actively in school affairs than did the parents of non-dropouts, and that they placed a relatively low value on a high school education.

With respect to parent participation in school affairs and its relation to pupil progress, some interesting data on a large suburban population of children and their parents has been collected (Grams, 1962). Information about the children was obtained from school records and from the children during school hours. Parent data were obtained by sending questionnaires and check lists, opinion and attitude inventories home with the children in sealed envelopes to be returned by the parents in the same manner. Because the study had the sanction of the Board of Education, the school administration, the faculty and the PTA we assumed that those parents who took the trouble to complete the material sent home (and it was a moderately time-consuming task) had, by their cooperation, demonstrated positive attitudes toward the school. Those from whom no cooperation was forthcoming were considered not to have positive attitudes. When we compared the mean achievement scores of the children of cooperating parents with those of non-cooperating parents, we found in three of four grades significant differences in favor of the children of cooperating parents. Although this study is yet being refined, we wonder about the relationship it suggests between parental loyalty to and interest in the schools and the achievement of their children.

Two other components of school achievement in relation to parental attitudes toward learning are noteworthy. Brooks, *et al.* (1962) have reported a moderately strong relationship between attitude toward the school and school attendance. Where parental attitudes toward the school were positive, school attendance was better. In a study of origins of achievement motivation, Argyle and Robinson (1962) confirmed that learning can occur by the introjection of parental exhortation and standards and by identification with achievement-oriented parents and others, provided in both processes, that the parental identification is sufficient. One wonders, in the face of this, what we might be able to do in schools were all parents pulling their share of the load especially in this area. How much can intervention by professional personnel be expected to offset the disadvantage from which a child suffers whose parents have implanted strong negative attitudes toward learning? This is perhaps one of the most serious implications of our present study and it deserves the most careful examination by those who would involve themselves in elementary school guidance.

Toward self

It is principally the task of parents to develop within their children appropriate values toward themselves and others. Our hypothesis throughout this presentation is, of course, that the self-concept reflects personal competence and in particular the response of significant others to our performance in a variety of areas. Even as it is important for the toddler to learn "I can do well" in response to the commendation he receives for what he does, so also the school-age child must be helped to attain a sound self-image built around the areas of his interests and success. Feelings of personal worth emerge in response to a multitude of interpersonal transactions which a child has within and outside of his home, but parents hold the trump card. Their acceptance of the child, their reliability and trustworthiness in providing the nurturance he requires form one basic pillar upon which a positive self-image rests. The other pillar is the encouragement, commendation, and acceptance of his behavior which embodies his manifold skills, abilities, talents and capacities. A child who receives this sort of "feed back" is becoming equipped for responsible mature citizenship in our society. He needs only now to be helped to find the reason for his preparation. He must be helped to understand why he is competent, or to what end he has developed a repertory of ability. He must be helped to see that his power (which is really what a healthy self-concept provides) is to be used in becoming a fuller person and sensitive to others. This, then is the third basic value which parents need to implant in their children.

Toward others

Man is an interdependent being made for intimate relationship with other men. He is basically incomplete apart from others and consequently seeks their companionship with urgency. Yet a relationship involves the reciprocal contribution of two or more individuals. It cannot materialize if the people involved are unwilling or unable to bring anything to it. "Now my unwillingness or inability to give of myself is largely a matter of my self-concept. I may be unwilling to give because I do not believe that I can spare anything or I may be unable because I actually do not have the competence required. I cannot make a contribution if I do not have the potential." The less competence a person has or feels he has, the smaller his potential contribution and consequently the more limited both the breadth and depth of his relationships will be. Man can find his fulfillment in service to his fellow man, and the greater his repertory of skills and abilities, the more extensive his service and the greater his fulfillment will be.

Thus, it becomes a primary responsibility of those who would guide the development of children to emphasize for them the importance of devotion to others to the healthy development of the self. Parents can do much to implant the value of deep concern for others and thus provide their child with a concept of fundamental importance to their understanding of themselves and their world. Of course, values like this are in large part conveyed by parental example and appropriated by identification with these and other revered adults. They are not learned as readily in response to verbal admonition. A life of relatively unselfish devotion to one's spouse, children, friends, neighbors, community and the world at large is probably the most effective method of teaching in this area. We recognize, of course, that this is no small chore, but we never said that the role of parents in their children's education, the role of parents in elementary school guidance, would be.

How Can Parents Learn to Play This Role?

Many parents play many parts of this role without undue difficulty. They seem to need little prompting or specialized instruction. What is done, however, is not always seen in relation to learning. Providing a child with a sound emotional basis, adequate social skill, and a fairly well defined scale of values may be done for other reasons and yet parents are unknowingly making a genuine contribution to their child's progress in school. Providing him with continuous intellectual stimulation is more likely to be linked to formal learning, but even here, many families lead lives jam-packed with experiences which have important transfer value for the children and yet most of the time manage to remain oblivious to the relationship which obtains between such activities and children's learning.

Notwithstanding what has just been said, two facts remain. In the first place, many more parents could be performing these functions. Secondly, many who are, but who do not realize how important this is for a child's successful academic progress, could be doing more. It is hard to imagine what changes might be wrought in elementary classrooms, what the quality and quantity of children's achievement would be, if all parents were to fully involve themselves in the educational process. Most of us know that right here a large share of elementary guidance is being neglected. Some of us are unwilling to live with the problem without first trying to enlist parents more fully. Perhaps this should be one of the first efforts of the schools in a program of elementary guidance.

This means, of course, that the schools must get involved in parent education. It means that the importance of parents in children's school experience be taken so seriously that the schools admit that alone they cannot do the job that needs to be done and that the parents are demanding that they do. No other agency has greater access to parents, and none has more to say about their behavior in this regard. Parent education in the schools can be sharply focused upon those aspects of parent role behavior which we agree relate directly to the learning process. We do not have to apologize for speaking boldly here. Fortunately, this is one of the few areas in which parent educators can speak rather definitively. We have been teaching children for some time now and studying the learning process simultaneously. We know a good deal about how children learn, certainly we know enough about the conditions which are conducive to learning to share these with parents. Just how this can be done will be discussed later, but that it must be done is our conclusion here. If parents play such an important part in learning in the elementary school, then the school has a responsibility to draw this to their attention and to assist them to make their contribution.

But what if all this fails? Surely, all parents are not going to do a good job. What then? Can nothing be done for a child from such a home? There is need for specialists of various kinds in the elementary school. We have an obligation to converge our attentions upon the child who is experiencing learning difficulty and to press into service on his behalf those specialists of whom he has greatest need. Among these, of course, must be a home-school agent who may be able to accomplish on an individual basis what the school through its group parent education efforts has been unable to do.

Of course children can learn despite intellectually impoverished homes and utterly recalcitrant parents. After all, some children learn despite inadequate teaching in school too. We are not arguing that a supportive home where parents play fully their role in the education of their child is an *absolute* prerequisite to a young child's achievement. We contend only that such a home is so vital an element in the guidance of children's learning that we ought to encourage its multiplication and work toward improving its efficiency.

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Chapter 4

The Guidance Function of the Elementary School Teacher

We believe that elementary school guidance should provide optimal conditions especially in the preschool and primary years for the encouragement of learning and development of an adequate personality. We have attempted to develop a theory which states that the growth of the adequate personality is contingent upon developing individual competence. The learning process becomes central and whatever action on the part of others facilitates that process is what we have chosen to call guidance. Recent thought about the teacher's role still emphasizes that he can serve as an extension of the guidance worker's arms, performing certain functions that are properly guidance functions in addition to his classroom teaching (Smallenberg, 1964). This is particularly emphasized in articles beamed at teachers in smaller school systems where guidance personnel for elementary schools are likely to be very scarce or completely non-existent. But our point here is just the opposite; that it is the teaching-learning process which is central and that the guidance specialist's role is an extension of the teacher's.

An example of contemporary effort to maintain guidance and instruction in separate though related realms is provided by Royster (1964).

> Instruction by the classroom teacher is primarily concerned with helping pupils to acquire concepts, skills, and understanding in certain subject areas. Although the classroom teacher provides assistance to pupils with personal and social problems, this is not his primary focus. On the other hand, the primary purpose of guidance is to assist individuals in meeting personal and societal demands and expectations. Even though there is a difference in the major emphasis of guidance and instruction, they are dependent upon each other. Guidance in the elementary school is centered around individual needs and is implemented by the classroom teacher with the assistance of guidance specialists. Both guidance and instruction are essential (p. 6-7).

Here helping individuals meet personal and societal demands is seen as distinctly separate from helping them acquire concepts, skills, and understandings in subject areas. However, when the classroom teacher helps pupils acquire concepts, skills, and understanding in subject areas, the learner is being assisted to meet personal and societal demands. It is felt further that concepts, skills, and understanding in areas other than the traditional subjects are also vital to meeting such demands and that they are acquired through the process of education. There is no major difference in emphasis of instruction and guidance, and we hold that if anything there is a very minor difference with both committed to the facilitation of growth and learning. Interpersonal competence is closely related to one's success in learning and the performance (behavior) of the person is enhanced as he acquires a repertory of skills with which to deal with others. Such performance is responded to positively and such reinforcement sets the stage for later repetition and elaboration. For this reason it is our contention that the child should during the early school years have had sufficient positive experiences and have made sufficient progress to withstand reasonably well the occasional difficulties and problems which are inevitable in school and in the life experiences of everyone.

The effort to maintain a substantial distinction between guidance and instruction is in part a result of our inability to divest ourselves of certain concepts about and images of guidance which have developed through the years when these services were expanding in the upper schools. Perhaps this fixation with an earlier idea bodes poorly for us, for as we will soon see, one very important characteristic of facilitating self-actualizing behavior is creative, innovative, and experimental teaching. Hopefully school personnel will not be too rigid and inflexible to adopt unprecedented programs which may contain unconventional methods and techniques. The tendency to conceptualize guidance in the same manner has been criticized by a number of writers, among them Peters (1964).

> Further, in order to design the most effective means of evaluation, it is necessary for school faculties to identify the purposes of guidance and counseling services. Too often, teachers — and sometimes guidance workers themselves — think of guidance as remediation rather than as the nurturing of healthy developmental growth. The emphasis on guidance as nurturing healthy developmental

> growth is of prime importance because practices that do not fit the developmental growth period of elementary school pupils are not appropriate for the elementary level. . . . .As elementary school guidance programs develop, it is very important that they be designed in ways appropriate to expediting the developmental tasks of the elementary school years. They should not be built on a secondary school guidance and counseling program that may not even fit the secondary level (p. 26).

In an article entitled "Personal thoughts on teaching and learning," Rogers (1957) suggests that the essence of teaching is quite similar to the essence of Rogerian counseling. He states that just as significant interpersonal changes in a counseling relationship cannot be imposed upon the counselee by the counselor, so a teacher cannot teach a learner new concepts and responses. Rather, the best teaching emerges from a teacher-learner relationship in which the former is accepting and permissive and the latter makes the relevant discoveries himself. Now most of us know that this is a rather idealistic description of typical teaching, and yet the truth is that good teaching may well have been personality nurturing all along.

We have our work cut out for us then. What are a teacher's guidance functions and how is a teacher to be helped to perform them? For we believe like Coleman (1955) that the extent to which good guidance practices function will depend upon the point of view and attitudes of the individual teacher. In his view no guidance program can be any stronger than the extent to which individual teachers accept each child, accord him respect as an individual, and reflect warmth of feeling for him. We would add to this list the extent to which the teacher understands the learning process (and by this we do not mean necessarily learning theory) and plays the role of learner among learners.

Preschool learning

Today, it is generally accepted that much learning has already transpired by the time a child enters kindergarten and professional educators are reviewing their responsibility in the area of preschool education. Learning is change in behavior and tremendous changes have occurred in the learner before he sets foot inside the school. What has happened to facilitate such learning is guidance and as a part of the guidance team a teacher needs to understand and to be willing and able to cooperate with preschool programs whether these are formally organized or the casual indirect programs which go on continuously in the home and the community. Teamwork between parents, preschool teachers, and elementary school teachers can begin before kindergarten registration (Snyder, 1954). There is no justifiable reason for public schools to be disinterested in learners before they are five. If a part of an organized preschool experience is to mold positive attitudes toward learning and the schools, kindergarten and primary teachers and principals should welcome these activities and support them in any way they can. The major responsibility for the articulation of elementary education with preschool experience should be assumed by principals and this will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6, but if our objective of early successful experiences in school is to be obtained we will have to include cooperation with preschool experience as an important part of the guidance function of the elementary school teacher.

Providing optimal conditions for learning and growth

The study of factors contributing to the "drop out" problem has pinpointed the need for special efforts early in the school experience of the learner to assure him some measure of success. This is in keeping with current suggestions that the schools can and should place more emphasis on situations leading to the well-adjustment of children (Silverman, 1955). Nowhere is the relationship of achievement and adjustment more strikingly portrayed than in the studies of delinquent youth. These youngsters have a long history of academic failure and what this really means to a school-aged child is that society has branded him a failure. Bertrand (1962) has sketched his predicament rather ably when he reported that the average grades of dropouts were considerably lower than those of students in school. Also, drop outs had on the average failed more grades. Intelligence levels were roughly comparable, so one must relate these patterns to other causes. Interviews with teachers and parents suggest that some of the following factors were involved: less motivation, less encouragement at home, less attention from teachers (in some instances), and less time for school in the sense of having to work at home. Once a pattern of low grades or failure was established, a snowballing effect apparently resulted, and failure came to be "expected" by the student himself, his teacher, and his parents. In other words, an adjustment to the situation was made which had elements of a self-fulfilling prophecy.

It is for this reason that we can speak of the contagion of failure and that we must also speak of the valence of success. Liversidge (1962) suggests that although previous experience, especially the more general characteristics of educational background and social origins, does have some influence on expectations and aspirations, the most potent force which affects them is the experience through which the child passes during his involvement in a particular educational program. In other words, it is what happens to a learner while he is learning which seems more crucial than his heritage or background, important as these may be. A child, as we have seen in our discussion of the role of the parent, who from the very first has been rewarded in learning situations is a child who will be drawn to such situations, feel comfortable in them and more than likely experience success in them. The need for success is one of the most important needs of children which can be met by the school (Resnick, 1955), but the job is much more difficult if the child's experience with learning has been essentially negative until the time he enters school. Achievement in school, then, is related to preschool achievement, and also to social acceptability (Lloyd, *et al.*, 1956) and this, of course, is the beginning of the vicious cycle. Unpopular children are less self-confident, less cheerful, less enthusiastic, less accepting of group standards, and less concerned with social approval (Guinouard and Rychlak, 1962), etc., *ad infinitum!*

To meet the learners need for success it will be important for teachers early to identify strengths and potentiality in them, and this is another reason for improved articulation between the preschool and school experience of the child. In our estimation it is of special importance that the classroom teacher be "strength" and "ability" oriented early in the experience of the child because learning builds upon learning and competence develops from competence. Now, in a sense, this is nothing new to a kindergarten or primary teacher, for they know how vital it is to find a "peg" to hang new learning experiences upon, and we can learn from such teachers that our concern for strengths of all sorts can yet converge in the very basic objective of increased language art skills for primary pupils. The reader will recall our emphasis upon reading skill in the last chapter, and it should, therefore, come as no shock that we continue to stress the importance of this skill. Again, we will say more about it in our discussion of teaching programs in a later chapter, but it must be emphasized here as we think about the cyclical nature of both success and failure that some competence in reading is the foundation or basis of so much later training from which we would hope that the learner can profit (Cleary, 1958).

On the other hand, it is not our intention here to suggest that there is no need for teachers in the primary grades to be on the lookout for weaknesses. Early identification here can often result in correction which may be almost impossible, once the whole matter becomes contaminated through many experiences overlaid with a variety of emotional and social meanings. After all, the early years in school are primarily devoted to developing language skills and if praised pupils make greater gains (Collins, Angelino, and Mech, 1960), then we will have to identify youngsters who are hard to praise in the area of language skills and see what can be done about it early in their school experience. For once the failure cycle begins it is exceedingly difficult to contravene. Many writers (Walters, 1956; Kirk, 1959; and Downing, 1959; among others) have pointed out the direct relationship between learning failure, ego-loss, frustration, behavior problems, and a steadily deteriorating state of affairs, but there is really no need to develop this point to any greater length at this time. In fairness, however, it must be mentioned that one can also overgeneralize about the impact of frustration in school. It is not the cause of all problems. Gnagey (1956), for instance, reviewed published studies in which it is argued that schools promote delinquency. He concludes that the data which have been reported can be explained on other grounds such as emotional maladjustment and purely accidental circumstances which have not been sufficiently investigated. It is, of course, comforting to remember that some learners come to school already badly mixed-up and that most studies of emotional difficulties and learning disabilities do not establish a cause and effect relationship, yet the school has an important obligation to be a part of the solution and not a part of the problem.

To intervene early and successfully in the lives of children on their way to trouble will require methods and techniques only infrequently employed in today's schools. We are often confronted with exceedingly difficult situations on the "firing line" and must have among other things in addition to dedicated teachers, inspired leadership from school administration if we are to score any noticeable breakthrough. We know the importance of individualization of instruction, for example, and yet we also know that often this is just so much jargon, because teachers who work in overcrowded classrooms with insufficient equipment and inadequate help cannot begin to individualize or "tailor make" their teaching. And yet, this is exactly the time and place when such individualization is necessary! (Waldfogel, Tessman, and Hahan, 1959; Kvaraceus, 1958). Our best cure for learning failure and assorted concommitant ills is to prevent it from ever getting started by superb programs in the preschool, kindergarten, and primary years.

But we have placed a large order on the teacher's doorstep. The creative teaching and other demands for intelligent guidance of the beginning learner make requisite a quality of teacher preparation only infrequently provided by training institutions. And yet, if a teacher is to perform his role properly, he must be prepared to provide conditions which maximize the likelihood of a learner's thoroughly exploiting his potential. He must understand learning and the learner in such a way that he can apply these understandings to the learning process in the classroom.

Understanding the learner

Educators do not need further admonitions to study children. The books and articles devoted to helping teachers and other school personnel understand children are too numerous to list, and even a sampling reveals that writers in various fields champion this idea (Redl and Wattenberg, 1959; Yoshino, 1959; Kowitz and Kowitz, 1959). Over the past twenty years, ever since the publication of *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (1945) there has been great interest in child study at both the pre-service and in-service levels. Yet with all the talk there is some question as to just what has been accomplished. Levine (1963) notes that the elementary school teacher may have had as little as six hours of preparation in child development and educational psychology. Despite their honest efforts, Wolf and Wolf

(1955) conclude, teachers fail because they misinterpret children's behavior, underrate their intelligence, and misunderstand their interests and goals. Nowhere is this misunderstanding and misinterpretation of behavior more apparent today than in our inner-city schools. Here it is that we are vividly discovering how unrealistic a view of life many teachers hold regarding how some people live, what their aspirations are and what hopes, if any, they have. One rather blatant indication of this has been exposed by Leslie (1959) and others in evaluations of the materials employed in "family living" courses. To understand children means to understand that there are many different kinds of children, all of whom if they are to develop a sense of integrity, deserve our respect and acceptance. To provide this will require that we recognize that some of their behavior will be offensive to us (Claussen and Williams, 1963).

Now this does not mean that a teacher is to condone and support any and all forms of behavior, but rather that in order to work effectively with some children we will have to be willing to start with them where they are. As we will discuss later, the guidance of learning involves the inculcation of attitudes and values and we dare not be ashamed of the importance we give to education. Plainly, it is our business to attempt to change the attitudes and values of some learners in the direction of our own in this area. If, however, we are going to be effective in our work with a learner, we must understand the developmental process which has brought him to the point at which we find him. To reject him because we dislike his differences is to lose whatever rapport we may have had and with it any opportunity to be of influence in his life.

Before going glibly on to a description of a "good" child study program for elementary school teachers (a temptation which we shall endeavor at all costs to avoid), we should like to submit a question raised by the work of Brandt and Perkins (1956). Just what good is such study anyway? They report on 16 independent studies done over a 10-year period to evaluate in-service child study programs for teachers in elementary and secondary schools. They suggest that participating teachers tend "to gain greater scientific knowledge about children's behavior and development; to change their attitudes toward children, teaching, other adults, and even themselves; to alter their own classroom behavior so that they use more positive and less negative ways of handling children . . . and to organize their classrooms more 'democratically' and less 'autocratically'. . ." (p. 93). Children's scores on academic achievement tests do not seem to be affected by teacher's participation in child study programs! How do we account for this? Before attempting an answer we should caution ourselves a bit in expecting all changes to be reflected in achievement scores since they represent only part of what we hope will happen in the school.

Perhaps one answer is suggested by Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt (1962) when they ask "What is the relevance of the contents and procedures of teacher training for the functions which a teacher performs in her or his day-to-day work?" (p. 2). Or, as our subtitle suggests, we might ask whether our focus has been too broad, has it hindered us to be studying the "child" instead of the "learner." It seems that even a child study program could be quite irrelevant if it focused excessively upon "problem" children, important though it may be for teachers to have some understanding of such behaviors (Eaton, D'Amico and Phillips, 1958).

If relevance is a lead worth pursuing then our attempts to understand the learner might well lead us to a systematic study of the child as a learner. Studies which deal with personal and social variables and children's performance on intelligence and achievement measures such as that done by Schmuck (1961) and many which are reported below in the domain of educational psychology might well be the fare in future child study programs. Intensive analysis of the developmental tasks of school age children, particularly the writings of Erikson (1950, 1964) on industry and identity, serious study of reports of action research like that of Getzels and Jackson (1962) and of Wann, Dorn and Liddle (1962), and the critical reading of such books as Bruner, *The Process of Education* (1961) and articles like White's "Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence" (1959) might help us concentrate on those aspects of human development which have greater relevance to what it is we are trying to accomplish in the classroom. To us the suggestion that we return to the view of a teacher as a full fledged professional practitioner of educational psychology holds much merit (Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt, 1962). It is to this end that we underscore next the need for teachers to understand the learning process.

Understanding learning

Let it be said from the outset, as we have not suffered from a lack of suggestions to study children, neither are we without admonition to understand learning. Foshay (1958) lists such understanding as one of the basic needs in teacher preparation. It can, however, be safely said that two factors have entered into the picture which have sidetracked us a bit in our pursuit of such understanding. In the first place, the child study programs have placed less emphasis on the child as a learner even though it is precisely through this process that significant contributions are made toward one's development. The second factor has been the parallel development of experimental psychologies of children and of learning which have concerned themselves with such isolated fragments of the developmental learning process that their relevance to the real-life teaching and learning situation is hard to see. Classroom learning, of course, is an extremely complex phenomenon, and it may well be for this very reason that rigorous experimentalists have avoided the subject with increasing fervor. Unfortunately, neither are teachers studying, as a part of pre-service training, reinforcement, motivation, and the relationship between symbolic material and its experiential referents as these relate to the classroom. If classroom learning is to be studied, and Levine (1963) insists that it must be, it will have to come through in-service training programs. Such programs will be discussed later.

Let us consider briefly a number of complexities in the learning process which recent research has elucidated. Our purpose is to expose a number of areas ripe for consideration by teachers as they endeavor better to equip themselves to facilitate learning. A number of writers have pointed to the problem which arises in the classroom when the teacher's goals and expectations for the learnings are unrealistic (Gordon, 1955; Dunn, 1959). Such assertions remind us that much research has been conducted in the past ten years which attempts to understand more fully the influence of social class, community, sex, and family factors on academic achievement (Schutz, 1960; Phillips, 1953; Rosen, 1961; Veroff, Feld and Gurin, 1962; Wertheim and Mednick, 1958; Bene, 1959). Teachers need to understand how these environmental factors can operate to set goals and aspirations which may not be congruent with those the teacher holds. Aside from such variables, probability of attainment is a factor in the attractiveness of certain goals to certain learners (Meade and Peterson, 1960).

Motivation is another highly complex and very rewarding area currently much in the research literature. It is for this reason that we suggested White's (1959) article in *Psychological Review* which describes so well where we have been and what is emerging in the field of motivation. Perhaps most important is the support he provides for the view that motivation can be indigenous, that activities can be conceived of as motivated in their own right. The concept that a tendency to put itself into use accompanies the emergence of ability or competence is most vital to the classroom teacher, for it warns of the possibility that the structure of a learning situation may actually hamper the progress of the learner. Put colloquially, sometimes the most effective guidance of learning is to get out of the learner's way. "But," we may object, "he isn't learning it at the right time, or in the usual way," but this seems to force us to the conclusion that lesson plans were made for learners, not learners for lesson plans.

It is also important to remember that school achievement means learning to read, to do arithmetic, and other such specifics. A teacher can only rarely afford the luxury of theorizing about learning in general, usually she is faced with understanding the learning process as it applies to a particular subject matter area. Things are complicated for the teacher by the fact that children achieve differentially in various subjects and that the patterns of achievement reflect quite varied developmental histories, often reaching back into the preschool years and sometimes even the prenatal ones (Kawi and Pasamanick, 1959). This specificity surrounding learning extends into many things, and teachers are continually confronted with individual and unique interactions. Even such a thing as classroom climate is not a "cut and dried" affair, but seems to have differential effects on learners depending on their achievement status (Brown, 1960).

Thus, the teacher-pupil interaction process is hardly something about which one can generalize. Teachers, learners, and learning are unique and so must the process be in which they are related. Another example of this is found in the area of reinforcement. Among the many studies of the effects of social reinforcement upon the learning of children, we are at this point, of course, especially interested in those which point to the impact of the teacher as reinforcer. McDavid (1959) reports that the incentive or motivational reinforcement values of positive evaluation by teachers for various individuals seemed to account for scholastic over- and underachievement differences. Another very interesting study attempts to appraise teacher competence (Cogan, 1958). Three traits, inclusive, preclusive, and conjunctive behavior, were isolated and related to two dependent variables (measures of pupil's productivity). The author states, "It seems fair to conclude that as measured in this research, the teacher's inclusiveness" (teacher's tendency to take pupils' feelings and goals into account) "is an observable and measurable trait of teachers and that it is related to the amounts of the pupils' required and self-initiated work scores" (p. 124). Along this same line, of course, is the need to consider the impact of peers as social reinforcers, and, happily, there is a growing body of research in this area as well. Any teacher who does not take into account the climate generated by other children in the classroom toward learning is simply not seeing the whole picture.

Sufficient mention has already been made of the relationship of emotions and learning to require only the sketchiest reminder here. A number of reports have summarized the recent literature (Bower and Holmes, 1959; Farnsworth, 1955). Bruner, (1961) presents a somewhat broader discussion of the nature of school learning and factors interfering with scholastic achievement. Most of the studies which deal with emotions and learning point out that even here the relationship is not a simple one. Emotions in small doses can have a salutary influence upon learning while severe, prolonged emotional states inhibit learning and debilitate the learner in time. On the other hand, the fact of individual differences is always with us, and we find that some learners can tolerate far greater amounts of emotion and still achieve successfully, while others are hindered in realizing their potential by quite modest amounts of emotional interference.

These then are some of the facets of the classroom learning process which are the professional domain of the teacher. As the arch-facilitator of learning in the schools, it is the teacher's responsibility to be conversant with these areas. Not only must the teacher understand for herself what the learning process is all about, but she must understand it well enough to teach others something about it also. Later in this chapter we will consider the teacher-parent relationship, but for now suffice it to say that parents very often will seek information which can help them to guide their children's learning wisely. Although much of this can be supplied in a formal parent education setting under the leadership of a specialist it would be most advantageous if teachers were equipped authoritatively to consult with parents on such informal occasions as when parents "drop by" school or stop to talk after a PTA meeting as well as during parent-teachers conferences.

Promoting and maintaining the "set to learn"

One aspect of learning which we have not discussed as yet in this chapter is readiness. We did refer to it in our treatment of the parent's role in the education of the child, and when we did we took special pains to emphasize the on-going nature of readiness. This is not something with which a learner must once be supplied, but readiness refers to the continuous network of experiences and ideas which are the underpinnings of new learning. New learnings, in turn, become assimilated by the individual and woven into that network and thus become part of the new framework upon which the next learnings are then built. Perhaps one of the most important insights to emerge from this pyramidal view of learning is its continuous, spiral nature. Readiness is on-going because learning is on-going. Learning is part of the developmental process and so we are urged to speak of developmental guidance. The developmental process today is viewed not as something which spans the school years, but rather as a lifelong process of "becoming" (Allport, 1955). In defining what he calls "guidance learnings," Hill (1964) describes what he feels is true for them, and what we believe is true for all learning. "It is perfectly clear that such aspects of the processes of maturing as these are truly learnings and that their achievement entails a considerable span of the developmental process. It is also clear that such learnings demand of the maturing person the ability to keep on learning, that they are never finally achieved nor completed" (p. 1).

It is for these reasons that we have frequently underscored the importance of the teacher or the parent or whoever guides the individual to demonstrate the stance of a learner among learners. In our opinion, an attitude of eager anticipation which reflects a deep and abiding interest in learning is one of the most potent influences which anyone who would guide learning can wield. Unfortunately, or perhaps fortunately, it cannot be turned on or off, but must be genuine. Hypocrisy here is soon apparent to the learner and can be a factor in his disillusionment with the whole process of learning.

Part of our problem has been that we have tended to associate learning with formal classroom experiences and have seen it occurring in spurts with long intervals of non-learning interspersed. Much the same thing can be said for our concept of motivation which we have tended to associate with dramatic "primary" drives. White (1959) suggests that one can make a strong case for the concept of breadth of learning and that additional evidence can be provided that such learning is favored by moderate and hampered by strong motivation.

> These facts enable us to see the biological appropriateness of an arrangement which uses periods of less intense motivation for the development of competence. This is not to say that the narrower but efficient learnings that go with the reduction of strong drives make no contribution to general effectiveness. They are certainly an important element in capacity to deal with the environment, but a much greater effectiveness results from having this capacity fed also from learnings that take place in quieter times . . . The earliest interactions with members of the family may involve needs so strong that they obscure the part played by effectance motivation, but perhaps the example of the well fed baby diligently exploring the several features of his mother's face will serve as a reminder that here, too, there are less urgent moments when learning for its own sake can be given free rein (p. 327).

In his summary, he touches our chief concern even more closely. "Strong motivation reinforces learning in a narrow sphere, whereas moderate motivation is more conducive to an *exploratory* and *experimental* attitude which leads to competent interactions in general, without reference to an immediate pressing need" (p. 330, Italics mine). Perhaps what we are saying, heretical as it may sound, is that some learning, perhaps even much learning, is hampered by the curriculum. The urgency to finish the book, finish the lesson, complete the course — the need to get certain things done — may well detract from the exploration in depth and breadth which might have occurred were our focus not narrowed so sharply to expect "completion."

Now someone will argue that to do away with the curriculum is to invite disaster for the chaos which would ensue would surely not abet learning, but make it well nigh impossible. With this we are quick to agree, but one does not have to go from one extreme to the other. No one suggested disposing of the curriculum, in the sense of formal subjects (although the thought has some exciting possibilities), but rather that in teaching we refrain from making "closure" too absolute. "We have now reached the end of this unit, and that is that!" It will be well for us always to remember that ours is a guidance function, and we are to be concerned with what we can assist the individual to become, not what we can pour into the pupil. We talk about all learnings being built upon earlier ones, but so often forget that the reason further learnings occur is because something in the earlier learning tripped off further inquiry and exploration. Somehow, good teaching must be like good research — it must frequently raise more questions than it answers. Now it is precisely this attitude of inquiry and interest in problem solving that we are suggesting here must be demonstrated by the teacher if he is to be effective in promoting and maintaining the set to learn. Let us look at some of the literature which supports this view.

That the atmosphere in a classroom and, more specifically, the attitude of the teacher affects the children is attested to by a number of writers (Frank and Frank, 1954; Henry, 1957). The mechanism by which this operates is suggested by Small (1958) and has been the subject of much exciting contemporary research. Small writes that the teacher is of prime importance (in developing superior talent) in that by exhibiting genuine personal qualities and enthusiasm for learning, he may lead students to integrate these attributes. Such identification with significant others need not impede progress toward autonomy and critical independent thought, for it is research interest rather than accretion of knowledge which should be emphasized in attempting to guide these children most effectively. The matter of personal qualities has come under further scrutiny by Ryans (1959) in a study of characteristics of teachers with high observer assessments. They were extremely generous in appraisals of the behavior and motives of others; they participated in social groups; they enjoyed pupil relationships; and they were above average in emotional adjustment. Tendencies to be generous in commending others has interesting differential influence on whether teacher's suggestions for aspirations are accepted by students or not. In a study of 400 tenth grade boys, Rosenfeld and Zander (1961) found that students tend to accept the teacher's suggestions for aspirations when they are rewarded, but tend to ignore or oppose what teachers desire when indiscriminate coercion is perceived. Tendencies to accept teacher influence are lowered under indiscriminate reward but increased by reward for adequate performance. Ryans' study, however, also points to the identification process to which Small alluded. He states that the high assessed teachers had strong interests in reading and in literary affairs, they were interested in music, painting, and the arts in general. One gets the picture here of a teacher who literally bubbles over with interest in and enthusiasm for learning. Overdrawn as such an image may sound, it is our contention that this quality cannot be possessed in excessive measure. Interestingly, it comes up over and over again both in our literature and in our professional discussions.

Kagan (1962), addressing the Second Annual Elementary School Guidance Conference, had some cogent remarks on this subject. In discussing the process of identification, he stated:

> What implication does this process have for guidance? One of the implications is that the child of ages four to ten is the most receptive to an adult model influencing his behavior. That is, if he sees an adult who possesses competence, power, and affection from others — a person whom he respects and likes — he is going to strive to adopt the characteristics, values, and behavior of that model. I don't think teachers realize, to the degree that they should, that they, next to the parent, are the most important models the child has . . .
>
> Age four to ten is a critical period and during this time the teacher must assume another mantle of responsibility. Not only is the teacher to be an accurate communicator of knowledge, but equally important, he or she is a role model. The way to get a child motivated to master academic tasks is to have that child respect and like you. It is much easier to get him to learn through this mechanism than with threats about grades or staying after school (pp. 14-15).

A second important element in this process, according to Kagan, is sex typing. This begins early in the preschool years and is responsible for such notable sex differences as male aggressiveness and female dependence. Or for the fact that it is appropriate for girls to be afraid and express their fears, anxieties, or emotions, but not so for boys. And what are the implications here for guidance?

> Unfortunately, areas of knowledge, or academic mastery become involved in sex typing. That is, certain academic areas become classified by both adult and child as masculine, others as feminine. This is most unfortunate. The clearest example involves mathematics. By the time the child is eight or nine years old, the average girl believes she is not supposed to be good in mathematics; this is an area of competence reserved for boys. Boys feel they are supposed to be good in mathematics. The point is that both teachers and girls in the school system reinforce each other on this issue (p. 16).

Kagan in his capacity as consultant to the school mathematics study group found that the most important variable determining the amount of progress in mathematics during the year was not the text book, but the teacher's attitude toward math.

> If the teacher was a woman who thought that mathematics was something she did not understand or knew nothing about, and that this was an appropriate attitude for females, then the girls in her classes made minimal progress in mathematics. If, on the other hand, she was a woman who did not have this sex-typed attitude (and this was rare), then her students made good progress.
> In essence this research project demonstrated that the most important variable in academic subjects, is the *teacher* (p. 16).

Following this, he broadens his concern somewhat to look at differential learning failure rates in boys and girls. "Why are there many more boys who have academic problems than girls? If you look at IQ's of 110 and above there are twice as many boys as girls showing problems. It's not that boys are less bright. The reason involves identification and sex typing" (p. 18).

A third process which he discusses is closely related although does not directly involve the attitudes of the teacher. We know that during the school years the child courts the peer group. Where before his parents were his major source of approval and acceptance, he looks more and more to his peers as he proceeds through the grades. It is unfortunate, Kagan suggests, that except for rare communities, the peer group is anti-intellectual. It does not like the bright student with high mastery intentions and for this reason it is very difficult for a boy to get both good grades and also retain acceptance of his peers. "I think this is a very important problem, but I am not sure what we can do to solve it. It involves not only the teacher, but the mass media." And we might add here, the other significant adult models in the community. "The values of the peer group must be changed and this is not easy to do" (p. 19).

There are of course, a number of things which complicate this whole matter, and we had best discuss them before someone wonders why this form of influencing learners is not more widely employed. In the first place, there are still those who worry about whether or not they have a right to inculcate learners with their values. Douglass (1954) has suggested that this is a serious matter and should be given much thought by teachers and prospective teachers, but maintains that this is a responsibility of those who teach, and that there is no circumventing the issue. Davidson (1955) suggests another possibility and that is that it is harder for a teacher to build into a child an internal satisfaction which would motivate him toward acquiring data or solving problems. To involve oneself deeply with learners means to demonstrate convictions and commitments and this is risky business! Perhaps we are safer to expose ourselves as little as possible. Still another consideration is pointed out by Sharp (1959) who contends that the identification process by which we might expect that values and goals are transmitted can be made exceedingly difficult when the discrepancy between the teacher's world and that of her pupil's is too great. After all, the learner may be in the middle, influenced in part by the values of the teacher, but strongly torn also by the polarities of the peer group.

Meeting emotional and other developmental needs

Here is an area about which much has been written, and doubtless it is an area of great importance. Unfortunately, perhaps, it has been singled out for all kinds of special treatment, and has, as a consequence of this separation, suffered misunderstanding and distortion. There are those who would suggest that teachers be prepared to deal with personality problems, (Amell, 1957) a position which goes well beyond that espoused here.

Cottingham and Lifton (1957) reported in their review of research that they found teachers increasingly asked to face and deal with the emotional problems in the classroom. If "to face" means to understand and to accept, then there is greater agreement (Berkowitz and Rothman, 1960) that teachers can meet the emotional needs of their pupils. "To deal with," however, is another matter which must be looked at a bit more carefully.

Amatora (1953) suggests that the teacher's influence might well flow through the identification process which we have been discussing. The impact of the teacher's own emotional adjustment, and the insight which she has into herself, are in many ways more important than particular skills of a therapeutic sort she may have picked up at a summer workshop. Her ability to understand how emotions are aroused and how they affect behavior is an essential ingredient which can often make the difference between maintaining a fruitful teacher-pupil relationship or not. And if we permit this communication to dissolve, we have all but lost the cause.

Some of the basic emotional needs of children have already been discussed in the preceding chapter. All children require acceptance, a sense of belonging, and a supportive nurturant environment in which a firm sense of trust can develop. Children need the opportunity to be themselves, to be children — not miniature adults, to be independent autonomous persons with an integrity all their own. And children need the opportunity to give, to make some sort of contribution, they need to be needed. This relationship between dependent, independent, and interdependent needs is developed at greater length elsewhere (Grams, 1963), and we refer to it here because it helps put our present discussion into the context of the facilitation of learning and the development of the adequate person. Our basic interdependence as human beings demands performance on behalf of others. None of us can be a person by himself, it requires relationship, and relationship is a two-way street. To experience genuine relationship (and there is a difference between that and a parasitic attachment) one must have strengths or competencies and one must have needs. Two kinds of individuals experience great difficulties in interpersonal relationships: those who are convinced that they have no talents, no strengths, nothing to give, and those who are convinced that they have absolutely everything, and therefore have no needs.

It is important for our discussion to remember that emotions belong to our repertory of abilities. So often we find people thinking about emotions as an area of need, rather than responses which we make under certain circumstances. We ought then to realize that the phrase "to meet the emotional needs of children" means not so much to "treat" their difficulties as it does to provide a setting in which the development of positive emotions is encouraged. There need be no great mystery surrounding this area, it is not all phobias, repressions, unconscious, and what-not. There is much that parents, teachers, and other adults who have contact with children can do to foster their healthy emotional development, and the truth is, of course, that many are doing it and have been doing it for generations. The only difference is that today we are all much more self-conscious about "providing for the emotional needs of children" and we strive consequently to make sure that no child is short-changed in this area. This is indeed laudable, but it may result in some unwise exaggerations of emphasis.

One example of such emphasis is apparent in the phrase "the child-centered home." If you have ever visited in such a home, either as a child or as an adult, you know how uncomfortable you can feel. Something is out of balance and everybody is under tension. The reason: children are not ready to assume the burden of being the center of a family. Childhood should enjoy a matter-of-factness, it should be characterized by a delightful peripheralness which alone permits *both* adults and children the right to their own world and their own standards. To bring them too much into the spotlight is to force them to assume too early the posture of adults and thereby to lose their charming and disarming naivete. The two worlds, the world of the adult and the world of the child, are necessary if the qualities of hope and anticipation are to be a part of human experience.

If our fundamental commitment in school is to help the individual become a person, we must take care of emotional needs. As a matter of fact, if we do our homework well, the emotional needs of a lot of pupils will be taken care of without much direct effort on our part. If we know that the concentration of attention is important to learning we will try to provide a setting in which the learners attention can be directed toward some area of classroom or academic learning. In some classrooms, unfortunately, many learners are busy attending to internal activities of various sorts generated by an excessively hostile, arbitrary, and otherwise emotionally maladjusted teacher. A classroom which provides abundant opportunities for young learners to be industrious under the guidance of adult learners who can be counted on for help when needed and for generous approval when merited is a classroom which provides optimally for the healthy emotional development of all who reside within it during the school day. It is high time we stopped separating "mental health" from academic achievement. Too long, now, some educators have been priding themselves in the enlightened teaching of today that looks after the child's mental health in addition to teaching him subject matter. Actually, for the majority of learners these two areas are inextricably linked.

Let us conclude our discussion of the understandings which a teacher must have of learning and the learner and return to the prior question of how these are acquired. We suggested earlier that teacher preparation which might provide such understanding is only rarely provided by training institutions, and if this is true then it is obvious that we have but two alternatives. We must provide in-service education for teachers, or we must change our preservice education program, or, and this may yet be the best solution, we may need to do both. Many writers have suggested that teachers need better training in these areas, and Hunt (1956), for example specifies that this must be through both pre- and in-service training. Rankin (1955) has presented detailed suggestions for a more adequate on-the-job training program wherein teachers may increase their understanding in the field of child growth and development. Lest we get the impression that in-service training represents a kind of stop-gap procedure which could be remedied if only we revamped the preservice curriculum, we should note that there are those who believe that no preservice training can anticipate the variety of behavior and emotional problems that will confront the new teacher, and that therefore in-service training is a must for teachers (Hollister, 1959).

In-service education of teachers

It seems that, at least in part, the teaching profession is designed to encourage humility. You cannot be a thoughtful participant in this profession and not be reminded constantly of how little you know. It is for this reason that teachers are generally hospitable toward suggestions of in-service training.

On the other hand, some are not always out looking for additional in-service educational opportunities. Therefore it appears that an administrative policy which enunciates the importance of continuous learning is a vital element in its successful implementation. It is not enough for supervisors and principals to design various incentives to get teachers to take courses. The idea of continuous learning must permeate the system. It is interesting to note how frequently workshops for teachers are planned and executed by administrators who manage, however, to avoid ever appearing at a single workshop session. Participating teachers cannot help getting the feeling that this in-service training was for "them" but not for their supervisors. As we will have occasion to point out in Chapter 6, it will be a sorry day for our schools when administrators get so busy administrating that they are no longer able to be learners. Hopefully, it is clear to the majority of them that a successful in-service training program begins with them, not as enablers but as persons deeply committed to and excited about continuous learning.

A number of programs designed to help teachers better to understand children are well known. Doubtless, the program described in the volume *Helping Teachers Understand Children* is widely acknowledged as a model and much good work has been done in numerous school systems in direct response to its stimulation. In many of these programs specialists are brought in to act as consultants to the group and the emphasis is frequently on self-understanding or the study of child growth and development or both. The Child Study Association of New York City and the staff of the Institute of Child Development at the University of Maryland provide much leadership to in-service programs. Hertzman (1959) describes a program which has been going on in Cincinnati for the past 15 years using group methods to help teachers explore their own self-concepts. Many reports of changes in teacher's perceptions of themselves are to be found but then we must always remember the sobering conclusions of Brandt and Perkins (1956) before we generalize too far from some of these glowing results. One program, in which again the most significant single finding concerned changes in teachers' perceptions of themselves, included executive development seminars for principals, special services seminars, and direct work with teachers (Mathews, et al., 1961).

Two questions continue to haunt us as we review the in-service training literature. One is the problem of the outside expert. The other is the matter of relevance of what is being taught. Is it possible that we are overlooking a resource person to lead various in-service programs in the specialists who are a part of most local school systems today? Let us look at this matter, and the matter of relevance in the light of our theoretical approach.

We are concerned with guidance as the facilitation of learning and helping individuals become adequate and not with its delineation as a separate specialty. We have suggested that many different people share the responsibility for the guidance of learning activities, among these parents, teachers, and other adults. In the next two chapters we will endeavor to show in greater detail the responsibility of specialists and administrators in this business, but for now we have an opportunity to look at one of the better ways in which various specialists can serve the cause of guidance in the elementary school. He can be a consultant to teachers who are eager to become more proficient at guidance techniques aimed at assisting children to develop their potential as individuals. Now not in the sense that they wish to learn how to administer individual intelligence tests, or where to obtain vocational and occupational information prepared at the level of the elementary school child, but in the sense that we have spoken about guidance, to learn how better to facilitate learning in a larger sense, to develop a more adequate personality. This then speaks to the problem of relevance. To get down to the earthy questions of how learning takes place within the individual, what kinds of things abet it, what kinds of conditions hinder it, these are matters of real concern to teachers. To explore new methods of presenting learning material, based upon research in educational psychology, and to embark together with the consultant on an experimental program with a group of learners, these are challenging opportunities which no real teacher could resist.

Again, we will say more of this later, but there are some interesting ramifications here for the training of elementary school guidance consultants or child development specialists or whatever we choose to call them. Surely it is for this reason that many workers in this field have warned against trying to prepare elementary school guidance people in the image of the secondary person. With all respect to those who suggest that the guidance consultant in the elementary school must be prepared to conduct discussion of such matters as "Why do our daddies have the jobs they do?" (Hill, 1964), we feel that such individuals have very little need for training in vocational and occupational guidance. They will be consultants to the whole staff from the principal on down, on the matter of school learning and the use of staff and facilities to continue in the process of individual learning.

Let us turn our attention to the implications of all we have said so far for the programs of preservice teacher preparation. There is no doubt that we could be doing much more than we are at the present time. Again, we do not presume to solve all the problems of teacher education overnight, but we hope to make some suggestions which, if implemented into the teacher training curriculum, might make some interesting and positive differences in the classroom in the long run.

Implications for Teacher Education

Growth in self-understanding

So much has been written on this topic that one hesitates to belabor the argument further. No one really needs to be convinced that self-understanding is a valuable asset to possess for anyone who will work with people. On the other hand, like with so many phrases in professional language, we have really not specified what we mean to accomplish in providing teachers with self-understanding. Are we interested in this because we believe that greater self-understanding is an important component in mental health? If so, are we implying that the mental health of the teacher is an important factor in the degree to which a classroom is conducive to pupil productivity? Ryan (1956), for example, suggests that since a wholesome emotional climate in schools is probably the most important single contribution the school can make to its students in mental health, development of psychological insight among teachers is one of the most important problems of prophylactic psychiatry. And yet, this can be such an unwieldy concept, it can mean so many things to so many people, that it seems vital to try to specify here just what kind of self-understandings are critical to the issues at hand.

We have been saying that guidance is the process of facilitating learning in its broadest sense. We have emphasized that in the school situation it is the classroom teacher who is the primary instrument of guidance, and that whatever variety of specialists a school system can afford operate to facilitate the total educational process. It is the teacher's role that they support and they occasionally play in somewhat greater depth than she does. All of this raises the question of teachers' willingness to see themselves in this role. Will they prove sufficiently adaptable? As we later consider experimental programs in classroom learning and teaching, much the same question will confront us, but this time will have to include specialists and administrators in it.

Now it is no secret that the school is a very conservative institution. Changes occur almost imperceptibly over relatively long periods of time. Each of us has been a part of this at some time or another; academicians are not ones to scoff at precedent and tradition. We are, of course, not advocating violent overthrow of all that we have stood for in the past, but we are saying that the rapidity of social change today and the noncommitant educational demands such change makes cannot be ignored. New federal legislation, especially Public Law 89-10, is centered around educational innovations to help the economically deprived but the proposals must come from the local school. It is mandatory, to receive these funds, that schools go beyond present offerings so we cannot say we do not have the opportunity to try out new ideas.

If there is any area of self-understanding which must be emphasized in teacher preparation it is the importance of personal change over time. It will be increasingly necessary for us to understand our inclination to resist change and to see what kind of influences are critical in the development of our attitudes and values. Only when we have accomplished this can we hope to build positive attitude toward adaptation and innovation.

Of relevance here is a recent unpublished study in which a scale which measures interpersonal values was given to groups of students in each of the three years of theological seminary and another group of men who had been graduated from the seminary and had been in the ministry five years. A similar study conducted several years ago with medical students and residents as subjects had demonstrated some marked changes in value scores across the four years, particularly on the "benevolence" scale (Gordon and Mensh, 1962). With the preministerial and minister group there was no shift in values whatever. Granted, the benevolence scale scores indicated high values in this area, yet what impresses one about the findings was the apparent resistance to change of any sort in the value structure of these men. If this is in any way a valid representation of the inflexibility of values at this age in life, one wonders how learning will influence behavior if it appears to have so little influence upon these important personal substructures! Again, we have discussed these studies because we believe a very important element in self-understanding for teachers, in the light of our purpose in this monograph, is an understanding of resistance to innovation and the development, hopefully, of a positive attitude toward experimentation, adaptation, and mutation.

We have stressed the need for school staff to view themselves as learners, to be open to new learnings, but we realize that this represents a departure in image for quite a few "teachers." What is surely appropriate here is that understanding begins with an appreciation of how this process takes place within the teacher as learner. Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt (1962) suggest that this is a most important ingredient in the preparation of teachers, because it relates how a teacher is taught to how, in turn, he teaches.

> A second major implication of our point of view is that the traditional ways in which teachers have been trained barely comes to grips with the question of how one maximizes the possibility that a teacher's practice harmonizes with principles of learning and development. A symptom of this neglect is that educational psychology (as the psychology of learning) is viewed as something which has to do with how children learn and not with how teachers learn. The student in the process of becoming a teacher is not made acutely *aware of how he is learning*, that is, to utilize himself as a source of understanding of the nature of the learning process. We would advance the hypo-

> thesis that one of the major reasons so many teachers are dissatisfied with themselves in their work is that their training did not illuminate the nature of *their* learning process and how this relates to and affects the learning process of their pupils. They teach, but in the process they tend neither to give expression to their own experiences as a *learner* or to perceive the identity between themselves and their pupils (p. 118, Italics mine).

Let it be said in summary, then, that self-understanding for teachers should emphasize understanding of self as learner, if teachers are truly to be masters of the teaching-learning situation. Again, this is not to discount other kinds of valuable insight into self which people preparing for teaching might be led to gain, but it does put the focus on the central element in the process of guidance. To remain unaware of our own capacity for learning, our own becoming, adaptation, and change is to deny ourselves one of our greatest assets in the guidance of learning, namely, the identification of ourselves with the process of learning and becoming.

Preservice preparation in educational psychology

In the past five years there has been much evidence of renewed health and vigor in the field of educational psychology. A number of major universities have discovered again the importance of awarding this division of psychology the dignity and identity it must have to flourish, and to be of maximum value to departments of education. The literature in the field is reflecting a sounder image as respected psychologists become associated with the field in ever increasing numbers. At the same time, though there are dissenting voices, there is strong opinion that the study of classroom learning must be viewed as a substantial part of the preservice preparation of the teacher. "I have been convinced," writes Conant (1963), "largely by the testimony of students and teachers, that for those who teach children, psychology which must be included, is the study of those areas which many years ago Thorndike selected as the major subdivisions of his monumental work on educational psychology, namely, "Individual differences" (the nature of the learner), "the nature of learning," and "conditions under which learning takes place" (motivation). Contemporary opinion, using other words, to be sure, continues to stress the need for teachers to appreciate individual differences (Lippitt and Gold, 1959)

(Levine, 1956) and to utilize this knowledge from the first in the prevention of learning failure. Emphasizing again the relationship between successful school experience and pupil adjustment, a recent discussion of the types of pupil personnel services and curriculum opportunities which are available at elementary and secondary levels, especially for Negro youth, concludes that teachers and guidance workers need to have trained insight into a child's motivation, coupled with the sensitivity of understanding, and the ability to communicate and identify with him (Hypps, 1959).

One sobering report demands our attention before moving on. Assuming that we accomplish our above objectives and do a better job of preparing future elementary teachers in the area of educational psychology, Dutton (1962) forces us to ask ourselves what good all this training is if the practice teaching experience spoils it all again. He reports that the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was given to 91 elementary school student teachers upon entry and at the end of a semester of student teaching, both highly anxious and non-anxious elementary school student teachers changed their attitudes toward youth in a negative direction. He suggests that the influences of student teaching may be a critical factor in the development of teachers' attitudes toward children. Education students not engaged in practice teaching maintained their high positive attitudes toward children. The suggestion is made that practice teaching situations may be unduly stressful. Another possible suggestion is that our teaching about children has been unrealistic and our methods courses too cluttered with references to all the "lovely" things about youngsters this age. Such misrepresentations can only result in disillusionment once the teacher comes up against some of the "unloveliness" of the "loveliest" children especially when this is compounded by the size of the class. It is strongly urged that courses about the learner have substantial laboratory components which will permit the student ample observation and even participation experiences with children the age of which he is studying. Such laboratory experiences will serve to prepare the future teacher somewhat earlier for the realities of group behavior of children.

Intensive training of kindergarten and primary teachers

If we return to our theme, namely, the facilitation of learning broadly defined through the assurance of early successful school experience, we can very easily derive the suggestion that our most able teachers should be dealing with children in their beginning school years. Obviously, this is where we find the rationale for the previous chapter, and there can be no question that in some instances even the best of teaching in the primary grades cannot overcome the totally inadequate teaching which has gone on in the preschool years, largely at the hands of parents. But leaving alone for a moment the matter of preschool experience (and this is admittedly a difficult thing to do), we must conclude that teachers in the beginning grades are the primary agents of learning success in the school. From this must follow the conclusion that they should be the most highly trained, the most carefully supervised, the most obviously talented, and some would say, the most highly paid men and women in teaching.

Unfortunately this is not the case. There are signs on the horizon, however, that the tide may be turning, but we suggest that things will have to be altered much more abruptly if we are going to intervene in the cycle of failure and dependency. Such a sign, for example, is the adoption by many school systems of a uniform salary schedule for elementary and high school teachers. Formerly, differential scales presumably reflected differences in preparation, degrees, etc., and since the grade level at which you taught also reflected your tenure in the system, such differences in earnings might have been justified. Today we are careful to avoid assigning beginning teachers to the primary grades and we try to place more highly skilled teachers in charge of beginning learners. This is not always easy to do, for we are not yet divorced from the idea that greater prestige in the world of education goes with teaching at higher levels, but there are a number of things we could do which would make these teaching situations more attractive.

For one thing, we should insist upon small classes. We should provide one or more teacher aides in every kindergarten, first, second, and third grade room at least, and these should be adult sub-professionals, not upper grade children, sometimes euphemistically called "service boys and girls." We should give primary teachers the most thorough support of the team of specialists and thus obviate the problem of too-late referrals or requests for help. (Levine, 1963). What we need is to put all of our knowledge and imagination to work to provide the kind of beginning school experience which is most likely to benefit the greatest possible number of children. If we manage to attain excellence in the beginning years and get formal learning off to a good start, the chances are good that most learners will be able to overcome later obstacles when and if they appear. The truth is, however, that we have not applied what we know imaginatively to the primary learning situation.

Take, for example, the fact that almost without exception, teachers in the primary grades are women. Now it is true that the young child entering school may require "mothering" because his sense of trust in the new surrounding is not yet developed, but we must not assume that only females can provide "mothering." By this time we simply mean the warm, supportive acceptance of the child, and it seems that many members of both sexes are capable of providing this. But why do we need more male teachers for the young as Ostrovsky (1959) suggests? Well, why, one might ask, is the failure rate at least twice as great among boys in the primary grades? Is it all a matter of girls maturing more rapidly? Is it primarily sex differences in patterns of child rearing? There is some truth in each of these suggestions, (and there is something we should be doing about each of them because they are true), but we would like to underscore what Kagan (1962) has said about identification and sex typing. He states, "I have made the suggestion many times (and I don't make it facetiously, although it is impractical) that if we randomly selected ten public schools and populated grades K, 1, 2, and 3 with male teachers and contrasted them with grades K, 1, 2, and 3 taught by women, there would be half as many boys with problems in the former group" (p. 19). Probably at the moment his suggestion is impractical, but if what we have been proposing is ever to come about, we should take steps at once to begin to make it practical or at least experimental.

These, then are but a few suggestions about the preparation and selection of primary teachers. Though a host of others could be made it is our purpose here to emphasize the need for special attention to successful learning in the beginning years of school with whatever that may necessitate in teacher selection and preparation as well as administration and organization of the schools. It would seem, however, that serious attention to the knowledge which we have had and are continuing to accumulate about young children and their learning processes and personality development must constitute a major portion of the preparation of kindergarten and primary teachers.

Working with parents and other adults

Perhaps the most obvious message in our work is the importance of viewing guidance as the business of a number of different individuals. But that a number of different people do certain things which facilitate learning and personality development is not enough, there must be effective and continuous communication between the most significant of these individuals or damage rather than benefit may accrue. In other words, the guidance of learning must be a team effort, and the most important members of the team are the parents and the teacher. In the past, the relationship between them has not always been in the best interests of the individual child. It is probably safe to say that an attitude of mutual distrust and suspicion characterized their relationship and although things have improved noticeably, yet it can still be maintained that parents and teachers talk at one another much more than they speak with each other. We have a long way to go in this area and teacher training has provided little if any help thus far. There are a number of important considerations here which might well be reviewed at this time.

In the first place, the prestige of the teacher in our society has fallen off sharply since the time that he was one of the few literate people in the community. With more and more parents in possession of education equal to or better than that of the elementary school teacher, the latter has slipped in the estimation of many members of the community to semi-professional status. Especially is this true of teachers in the elementary school. With low status, of course, comes basic disrespect and disregard and a serious breakdown of communication between the school and the home. Investigating this matter in some depth, Rettig and Pasamanick (1959), suggest that the greatest difference between teachers and other professionals is the lack of recognition and socio-economic power. Teachers, they suggest further, suffer from an inferiority complex with respect to their own status and prestige. In working with other professional groups in the mental health field, teachers receive their highest status from non-psychiatric physicians and general hospital nurses, while their lowest status comes from the clinical psychologists and private practicing psychiatrists. In part we would suggest that these findings indicate again the seriousness of dichotomizing achievement and adjustment, and especially our ridiculous tendency to award greater prestige to those who concern themselves with the latter, when we know that the two are all but inseparable. But not only do teachers suffer from lack of esteem on the part of professional colleagues. They have actually been infected by it so that their perceptions are heavily "loaded" in this direction (List, 1962). All of us realize, of course, that the teacher's colored perception of the meanings of others, professional or layman alike, could further complicate the communication problem and in extreme cases deteriorate into some rather serious personality problems for teachers.

The truth is, of course, that while on the one hand the community does not award high status to its teachers, it is on the other hand fearful of them and their influence on the children and consequently the family. That parents are themselves uncertain is attested to by the popularity of child study programs, groups educational efforts, and the varieties of other experiences available to those seeking help in child rearing (Schwartzberg and Becker, 1955). What we need is not just additional skills in communicating with parents (Langdon and Stout, 1954) although such skill is important and will be discussed in greater detail later, but certain basic revisions in teacher training which will at the same time make them less threatening to parents and more prestigeful. Although this prescription is oversimplified it would seem that a greater liberal arts orientation would do both, since it would make the teacher conversant with many of the parents in the community about their educational experiences and at the same time remove some of the mystery that surrounds them now because of the somewhat esoteric nature of the teacher education curriculum. Liberal arts education prior to professional training in education would do much to enhance and upgrade the status of the teacher in the community and in the eyes of other professionals. On the other hand, there is ample evidence a specialized type of training in communicating with parents in disadvantaged areas is becoming equally vital.

If at least a part of a future teacher's preparation (the undergraduate portion, for example) is to be at the hands of the faculty in liberal arts, the day may well be hastened when we no longer distinguish between education and "education" on the campus. What we have been saying about the guidance of young children applies as well to college students and everyone who teaches shares the responsibility for education. This does not imply that all members of a faculty will strive to be master teachers, but it may be to the student's benefit if they were reminded by the presence of pre-education students that the principles of learning and motivation apply as well in the teaching of the humanities and the sciences as they do in fifth grade social studies. In a sense we are suggesting that instructors in liberal arts need to view themselves as teachers and educators (rather than only as biologists and classicists, for example) while teachers in the lower schools need to see themselves as concerned with the "liberal education" of society. This latter becomes more apparent when we view teaching in the context of the development of competence, for under these circumstances we see the process of education under the guidance of teachers providing the skills, abilities, attitudes, and appreciations which truly "liberate" individuals from the confines of ignorance, doubt, and superstition.

Once some of the basic barriers to communication between parents and teachers can thus be removed we can pursue the possibility of teachers being willing to teach parents as well as children and parents being willing to accept the guidance of the "master teacher" as well. And this end is, of course, crucial to our entire presentation. We stated in the last chapter that the school would have to assume the obligation for parent education in the area of the parent's role in the education of the child, and although it may be that one member of the faculty, or one of the specialists accept the major responsibility, it will need to be shared by members of the staff. This means that occasions like parent-teacher conferences and school openhouses, may well lend themselves to parent education, and that they be viewed as opportunities for such by both parties. But even a more accepting view of teachers by parents and a willingness on their part to be taught by them how better to perform in the role of teacher to their child will not assure such communication taking place unless teachers are trained in how to talk with parents. There is plenty of indication that at present they know very little about this part of their job (Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt, 1962), and that this hampers their effectiveness most severely (Maves, 1958).

At this point perhaps more than anywhere else we see the need for the teacher to have training in what are stereotypically known as "guidance and counseling" skills. Although such abilities as acceptance and reflection of feelings come in handy in the classroom they are also vital to working with adults. Even here we hasten to add that we do not see the teacher's role in his relation to parents as in any way that of therapist to client. We agree with Missildine's (1962) conclusion based on a study of 97 children that most families can benefit from just child guidance suggestions alone (without the need for direct therapy). While it is true that he had reference to guidance suggestions of a broader nature, it seems to us that this is simply another corroboration of the fact that teachers can help parents in their role as co-facilitators of children's learning (Amatora, 1957).

Training in experimentation and innovation

When we began the discussion of preservice preparation we emphasized the importance of the development of a positive attitude toward adaptation and innovation. We did not there elaborate on how this might be done. Our review of some writing in this area and our own reflection yields a number of interesting possibilities. One suggestion is that this "set" can best be cultivated through frequent opportunity to participate in experimental and imaginative teaching programs of all sorts, preferably ones in which they themselves are the learners. If the observation that we teach as we have been taught is true, then exposure to flexibility in teaching method and procedure is an essential in teacher preparation. Some of this might well be supervised experience with children such as Hanszen and Hollister (1956) describe. Here spontaneous pupil play writing and acting is advocated as a means of helping teachers and pupils understand one another better. Still other exposure might include various methods of presentation of basic material including the use of teaching machines.

But it is important that flexibility and innovation be linked to research and constant evaluation of the teaching-learning process. Change and variety surely cannot be ends pursued in their own right. Acquaintance with research in educational psychology and action research in the schools is an ingredient in teacher preparation which is receiving greater stress (Barnes, 1958) and which ties in well with the idea that such research can and must form the basis for curricular offerings and innovations of teaching methods and techniques (Duke and Hindsman, 1959). What we are saying then is that teachers must be exposed to experimental teaching which endeavors to capitalize on research in educational psychology and which provides opportunity for maximal creativity.

Teachers who have been exposed to research in undergraduate and graduate training and, hopefully, fascinated by it should make eager participants in in-service programs in the schools. These sessions could include the consultant in guidance or child development specialist, the school psychologist, or other research oriented persons helping teachers in the study of contemporary action research and in planning their own. Such teachers would be comfortable in the face of growing evidence that what may be a setting conducive to learning for one child is not necessarily such for another (Flanders, 1959; Phillips and Haring, 1959). Such teachers are prepared to maintain an openness to sound experimentation while at the same time displaying sufficient sophistication not to be alarmed at every pious proclamation nor swayed by relatively shallow conclusions based on very tentative findings.

We are not advocating this kind of training only because it may improve the actual teaching procedure, but because we believe that this kind of involvement does something for the teacher as a person, which may be equally as important as his improved skill as a practitioner. We believe that innovative teachers are more enthusiastic about their work, and that this attitude rubs off readily upon their pupils. Science and math teachers, and those in the fine arts are excellent current examples.

To be this kind of a teacher literally requires that you become a "believer." There is little likelihood that an individual who is not "sold" on what he is doing will conjure up much interest among learners. This does not mean that a teacher must be completely "gone" on one subject to the exclusion of all others, although at higher levels of education this is often the case, but that the teacher is excited about learning — venturing forth into the unknown. But, you may ask, how is this possible within the limited subject matter content of the elementary school? The answer here would seem to be that the imaginative innovative teacher in this setting, especially in the primary grades will have to find the teaching-learning process exciting and challenging, the process of education an intriguing and thoroughly rewarding activity in which to be involved. More teachers so trained and so committed and so excited might make a sizeable dent in the problem of failure and frustration in the early school years.

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Chapter 5

The Role of Specialists as Facilitating Agents in the Guidance of Elementary School Children

The specialist as an extension of the teacher

Our principal theme, that guidance is the facilitation of learning and personality development, requires that we see guidance as integral to the teaching-learning process, not a luxurious "extra" which wealthier school districts can afford and less wealthy ones cannot. Teaching is the guidance of learning and self building activities and therefore anyone, parent, teacher, or another significant person who helps a learner learn to become a fuller individual is acting in a facilitative capacity or in a guidance role.

An important corollary of the above is the concept of the human being as an individual potentially capable of acquiring enormous competence through the process of learning. We have tried consistently to indicate the breadth of the concepts we are employing. Here again, we have a process not confined to the classroom, not even to what might be perceived as a "learning situation" but rather to many and varied life experiences which contribute to our total development as persons. In our view the human being is essentially a learning organism, and the various kinds of "adjustment" he makes at various life stages, his progress in overcoming important developmental tasks or hurdles, all these are ways of talking about the process as it unfolds during the course of a lifetime.

Such learnings do not, however, simply emerge from within. The course of human development is not something which follows a predetermined path principally as a function of maturation. No one denies the importance and the potency of maturational forces, but the changes which are wrought in the individual during the course of personality development reflect the influence of effective environment, primarily that of people. Ausubel (1959) develops these ideas in his discussion of the plasticity of the individual, the direction of development, and the outcomes which are sought in the relation to the guidance process. In his discussion of plasticity, for instance, he reminds us that the prepotency of parental influence reflects the significant advantage of primacy. Such early influence, however, can contribute either to increasing resistance to personality reorganization or to an easy adaptation to change.

In sum, we have a learning organism, highly susceptible to influence by those who nurture, guide, and encourage the process. We have already elaborated the role of parents and of classroom teacher in this process. In each case we have had to conclude that the task made demands upon them which went beyond the capabilities they possessed, and that if learners were to be maximally aided, both parents and teachers would require additional training in the facilitation of learning as well as substantial direct assistance with the task on the part of specialists. It is the role of such specialists in the guidance process which we wish now to explore in somewhat greater depth and from a different point of view than that from which we discussed it in Chapter 2.

Of major importance is the view that such specialists see themselves involved in the teaching-learning process which involves all learners, rather than professional trouble-shooters who take over with a select few when for them the traditional learning machinery has ground to a halt. The facilitation of individual learning and of personality development has not occurred as it might have partly because guidance has been divorced from it in the minds of many, and that the principal reason for this has been excessive specialization in the field of counseling and guidance at the junior high, high school, and college levels. There are many who maintain that elementary school guidance must not be created in the image of guidance at the secondary level, yet, although agreeing wholeheartedly with such a view, we would go beyond and say that the concepts we are developing here are equally applicable to guidance at all levels, and that we would improve the efficiency of our educational programs, and get greater benefits for all learners were we to reorganize our efforts in guidance in the upper schools along these lines.

Reports emerging from the four regional centers of the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services (IRCOPPS) are most relevant and we will refer to them frequently. These centers were established following the funding in 1962 by the National Institute of Mental Health of the

IRCOPPS proposal. This proposal was prepared by representatives of many professional specialties who assembled under the sponsorship of the U. S. Office of Education in 1961.

The following organizations were represented in the group which prepared the IRCOPPS proposal: The American Association of School Administrators, American Nurses Association, American Personnel and Guidance Association, American Psychological Association, American Speech and Hearing Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Council of Chief State School Officers, Department of Elementary School Principals, International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers, National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Association of Social Workers, and the National Education Association (joined IRCOPPS in 1962). It was generally agreed by the representatives that primary emphasis should be placed "on the study of young children, on screening for the early detection of difficulties and deprivation, and on the primary preventive measures in the early years of school" (Dunn, 1965, p. 2). This concentration upon primary prevention comes through as well in the definition of pupil personnel services as "that area of special service provided to children to maximize their emotional adjustment and academic achievement" (Dunn, 1961, p. 1).

To assist all learners to maximize their potential for growth and learning is a task far larger than any one professional group can accomplish. We are required to admit our interdependence upon one another and to discard our stereotypes about various guidance services and adopt fresh conceptualizations of our task. This is the reason we have begun by describing guidance in relation to learning broadly defined and the work of specialists as supportive of the teacher's role. But new conceptualizations are assimilated only very slowly as we see in the case of developmental guidance.

The concept of developmental guidance has been introduced to underscore the need to facilitate total growth and learning for all participants in the educational process. This view sees as guidance teaching which encourages the maximum utilization of potential; it aims, in other words, to increase the level of human competency across the entire range of behavior, not just to ameliorate difficulties by focussing on areas of weakness. However, this view is not as yet too widely accepted.

> Unfortunately, students also have a tendency to view guidance services from other than a developmental point of view. They share with their teachers the notion that guidance is for those who are performing at a less than satisfactory level on some behavioral dimension. They do not view it as a means of assisting the mediocre to perform at a superior level or as a vehicle for helping the superior student to perform at an exceptional level. They must come to realize that the counseling interview is basically a learning situation and that the well-motivated, intelligent student stands to profit far more from counseling than does the unmotivated, less intelligent student. Perhaps it is in this area that Mr. Conant's report will make its greatest contribution to the modern school; for as students who are known to be excellent are seen in fairly frequent contact with guidance personnel, the stigma currently attached to taking part in a counseling interview will gradually disappear. In sum, until there is a radical departure from a negative problem-oriented conception of guidance services on the part of teachers and students, the concept of guidance for all youth will be but a counselor-educator's dream (Riccio and Wehmeyer, 1961, p. 18).

We see in the quotation a compromise between the traditional view of guidance services and guidance personnel and the view we espouse in this monograph. Although negative, problem-oriented guidance is rejected and the need for guidance for all learners stressed, yet the guidance function is seen as that of specialists rather than as something shared by all those who guide the learning process. We believe that the departure mentioned in the last sentence will occur much more readily in teachers when we reintroduce them to their proper guidance role, and when we help both teacher and specialist to accept the idea that this is not a special service which only the latter is capable of performing. Everything that a specialist in the elementary school does is an outgrowth of and an elaboration of the work of the teacher; the specialist, as we have said, is an extension of the facilitative function of the teacher (Gilbert, 1957).

The classroom teacher's task is a complex one and most teachers are better prepared to function in certain areas than in others. As with all of us, their training is uneven, in some places thorough, in others sketchy. Yet it is this very uneveness which makes a coordinated team approach to the guidance of learning activities a viable option. The members of a team must complement an effective relationship. Our trouble is that we so often use words like "team" or "teamwork" without stopping to analyze what such a term actually implies. For while, on the one hand, their must be differentiation of function and emphasis within a team, there must, at the same time, be common goals and shared responsibility. A team consists neither of individuals who are all exactly alike who can do precisely the same things with identical facility, nor of persons who have no skills, understandings, and appreciations in common and who are basically individuals committed to the exercise of certain functions with little or no regard for the total fabric of which they are to be a part. Hollister (1959) suggests that more is being expected of the teacher in the mental health area, and more resource people are being mobilized to help him. He is expected to screen and identify children with problems, use group guidance methods, contact parents, and maintain liaison with specialists. In return, the educational and mental health resources of the community provide the teacher with more consultants, more in-service training and more referral sources. "The mental health roles of the teacher are moving from a personal responsibility to a teamwork effort" (p. 58).

Again one cannot help but get the feeling that Hollister is separating the adjustmental task from the teaching task, but he expresses the teamwork concept well. What he and others (Ivey, 1962) do lead us to see, however, is that the complex and demanding job of teaching, if it is to be done as it best can be, requires effort beyond that which the classroom teacher can give. The function of teaching is multi-facetted and requires the cooperative endeavors of a variety of people whose special training and/or particular interest in the individual prepares them particularly well to make their contribution and emphasis where other members of the teaching team are less competent (Wyatt, 1957).

Teaching Functions and the Role of the Specialist

Early in the discussions which led up to this monograph it was understood that we viewed guidance as the facilitation of learning and adequate personal growth, and good teaching as essential in the process of guidance. Our emphasis throughout has been on the functions involved in the guidance process, and just so here it is the process which defines the nature of the specialties and specialists who constitute a substantial portion of the educational team. Other major contributors to the guidance process are considered separately; parents, teachers, and administrators, but in this section we shall look at other members of elementary school staffs. Furthermore because the purpose of guidance is the facilitation of growth and learning, we include in our thinking about this matter curriculum specialists and subject matter consultants not ordinarily included in the guidance "lineup."

Webster defines facilitate in the following way: 1. To make easier or less difficult: free from difficulty or impediment (—the execution of a task) 2. to lessen the labor of (as a person) assist, aid. This reminds us that the guidance of individual experiences embraces also action aimed at removing difficulties and obstacles which accumulate in the learner's path whether this occurs during the preschool years or after entering elementary school.

The main function of guidance is that of assisting the learner to achieve maximal personal development. This is the theme of this monograph. The other functions of evaluation, diagnosis, and remediation while not especially emphasized in this monograph are basic to the guidance process. It is in the area of these latter functions, particularly as they are dealt with on an individual basis, that we encounter the specialist in pupil personnel services. Our hope is that we may be able to increase the participation of pupil personnel specialists in the facilitative function on the one hand, and the participation of teachers as much as possible in the evaluative and remedial function on the other, since only as all who are responsible for children's learning and development accept the varieties of functions which undergird their work can we hope to attain our objectives.

Relevant here are some of the questions asked by the researchers at the University of Maryland Research and Demonstration Center of IRCOPPS. In discussing the rationale upon which their research projects are based they present some fundamental issues.

> The staff of this center elected to orient its work by going beyond one of the Commission's charges. The Commission identified one need as that of finding ways to efficiently use *present* services (counselors, psychologists, nurses, etc.). The staff of this center concluded that there would

be a greater yield in research knowledge if present services were not accepted as "givens" in all of our research projects, and concluded conversely that some of our research must be conducted around a hypothetical nonexistence of any services. This conclusion then led to the development of the questions on which some of our research is based.

1. What are the purposes of public education?
2. What is the optimal organization and curriculum for attaining these purposes?
3. What teacher functions are tenable (by criteria of best preparation and optimal use of time) in attaining these purposes?
4. If teachers alone cannot attain the purposes of public education, what additional functions need to be carried out? (It is assumed that chief among these additional non-teacher functions will be those for which the term pupil personnel services has been used in the past.)

These four questions logically lead to that question which is basic to our research projects:

5. How can these pupil service functions be best carried out in schools which vary in a number of major characteristics when judged by the somewhat overlapping criteria of:
    a. maximum tenability of human development theory
    b. maximum impact on a maximum number of pupils
    c. efficiency in the "packaging" of these functions (can one type of worker do them all? If more than one type of worker is needed, how are the functions to be divided among the two or more types of worker?)
    d. economy of funds and worker time, and
    e. worker preparation programs which are tenable in quality of training and length of time required to train.

Another essential position was subscribed to by this Center's staff: it is in the elementary schools that the greatest fundament of research knowledge is needed because it is in this period of schooling that the essential battles for maximum human development of the greatest number of persons are won or lost, and it is this area of schooling in which the expansion of pupil services is about to accelerate enormously (University of Maryland, pp. 2-3).

Their report clarifies several other issues as well. In their discussion of the child development consultant (cdc) the matter of function is dealt with in a slightly different way, and a most insightful exception taken to the IRCOPPS emphasis on prevention.

> We have been training the cdcs *first* as persons who will be able and know how to support, abet, or enhance the adequate development of all pupils who are now developing (learning, growing, maturing) satisfactorily. Only secondarily are they being trained to serve a remedial, restorative function with those pupils whose life history has been of inadequate development, or who have been extruded from the course of adequate development, once having been adequately growing.
>
> It is our conviction that this mental hygiene or development-enhancing function is the *primary* reason for employing an in-school pupil service worker in any level of education, but particularly in elementary schools. In acknowledging that this function is the one which has noticeably *not* been carried out by pupil service specialists in the past, we are in agreement with the IRCOPPS point of view, explicity expressed in its proposal to NIMH mentioned several times above. But even here our staff seems to have gone a step beyond the Commisssion, in that the Commission refers to "preventive mental hygiene". We view "prevention" as a concept only slightly removed from the negative concept of remediation. Prevention as a term seems to be concerned only with keeping the undesirable from happening, and remediation tries to undo the undesirable which has happened. *We emphasize abetting, enhancing, encouraging, supporting, accelerating development — a positive concept which logically includes prevention by superseding prevention as a construct.* (italics mine) Our experimental cdcs are being trained to know the normal, healthful course of development as it may be viewed under the terms of physical, cognitive (or intellectual), emotional, and social development (recognizing that to a large degree these terms do not represent discrete developmental facets). They are being trained as to how they might bring this knowledge to bear in a pervasive way in a school, thus carrying out their *primary* function. Remediation or restoration is easier to learn about, needs for remediation are the more noticeable, thus result in loud demands, and the history of pupil personnel workers has been one of remediation. These facts let us point out that remedial procedures are learned rather easily, and our cdcs are studying in this area too (University of Maryland, pp. 7-8).

Essentially the Maryland project aims to study the relative effectiveness of three types of specialists in the elementary schools. Their outcome variables are 1) academic learning, 2) social behavior learning, 3) attitudes toward self as a learner, and 4) attendance rate (University of Maryland, p. 10). Control schools will furnish base line data, and it is group changes, or changes in the total pupil population of the school which are being sought. It is quite clear that much of the work of the specialists, particularly that of the child development specialist, will be of a consultative nature and that much of the consultation will be around the development of individual competence. To provide the most beneficial consultation to teachers will require, in the estimation of the Maryland group, a person trained as an interprofessional worker. Specifically, they suggest that he must not be too committed to a given discipline or profession if he is to avoid the narrow focus and provincialism which has splintered so many efforts to promote optimal learning and growth in school children.

A second look at their outcome variables reveals that they are aware of the circular relationship of affect and achievement which we have included in our conceptualization. The attitudinal variable bears on "self as a learner," and concern with emotional adjustment is seen as an essential means to the end sought, but not an end in itself. "Self-esteem, confidence, a positive self-concept has often been stated as a goal of schools. It is being studied here, not only as a goal, but also as an important variable because investigators . . . have shown such intrapersonal variables are related to achievement" (University of Maryland, p. 12).

Developing a Facilitative Orientation

Clearly the majority of the specialists whose organizations were represented in the original group which initiated the IRCOPPS proposal, are people who are problem oriented. Doctors, nurses, school psychologists, speech therapists, social workers, counselors and remedialists cannot be faulted for reflecting their highly specialized training in their approach to the child in school. Superintendents and principals, on the other hand, are likely to be preoccupied with the role of administration which brings with it its own brand of concerns. To assist specialists and administrative personnel to adopt a facilitation orientation as their primary stance will prove a large task, but hopefully one which results in equally large benefits to the learner. For the administrator we have reserved the next chapter; here it is our task to look at the various specialists within the facilitative context. Now we appreciate that the evaluative and remedial or restorative functions must likewise be implemented but here we deliberately choose to give them now but passing mention since they are so well described in the literature in each of the professional specialties.

As we look at the specialist from this perspective it becomes clear that his primary role within the facilitative function is that of a consultant to those who will deal directly with learners. Guidance specialists in elementary schools will make their most valuable contributions "behind the scenes" rather than on the firing line. Their consultees will most frequently be parents and teachers, but curriculum coordinators, supervisory and administrative personnel will also benefit from periodic consultation with them. If their efforts are to benefit *all* individuals they will probably find that consultation with individual children will occupy a smaller segment of their time. In part, of course, this will depend on the identity of the guidance worker. If we call upon "traditional" specialists to do this job, we must appreciate that, at least at first, there will be no diminution of demand on them for specialized work with individual children and their parents. Unless we make some adjustment in work load it will be practically impossible to use these people consultatively, even if they were willing and able to shift to a facilitative frame of reference. If we groom others for this work we can orient them from the outset toward the role of consultant, but we will have to be willing to redesign our training programs in order to produce a new kind of person, an "interprofessional worker," to borrow a phrase from the Maryland group.

With this in mind let us look at the kinds of consultation which must be accomplished and suggest how they are to be implemented. It seems clear from the IRCOPPS reports that others are seriously considering training a new professional, and this may be the most workable solution. We intend, however, to look also at the literature surrounding existing professions involved in work within elementary schools and where possible to relate this to the task at hand.

Consultation About Learning

There is much that is known about learning which those who are involved in guiding the process do not know. There is more being learned every day. Most of this information is published in professional journals in educational psychology or the psychology of learning and thus is rarely if ever seen by parents, teachers, and administrators. Most teachers are aware of real deficiencies in their understanding of the learning process and are eager to do something about them. This is less often true of administrators and parents, not because they do not realize they lack understanding of learning, but rather because they do not see the relevance of it for them. We are confronted here again with the problem of the image of the administrator and the parent. It is quite unusual to find them adopting the stance of learner among learners, and until this becomes more prevalent, we shall have some difficulty convincing them of their need for in-service training.

The concept of in-service training is nothing new to most people. Men and women in industry, business, and the professions are constantly being sent back to school, or going under their own free will, in order to "keep current." School personnel are much involved in such activities, and in the case of teachers, promotional credit is given to encourage participation in continued education. To speak of in-service training for parents as parents, however, falls somewhat awkwardly on the ears. And we will not here go into the whole field of education for child rearing, but select out just the aspect of helping a child to utilize his potential to the fullest extent. We suggested in the third chapter that the school would have to take responsibility for the education of parents in this area if more parents were to play their roles effectively. We suggest here that such education is a kind of orientation activity which is one of the critical functions of the specialist in the elementary school. But not only parents but also administrators will have to be helped again to see themselves in the role of teacher and for that reason much in need of in-service training in learning. School administrators dare not allow themselves to get so involved in buildings and grounds and public relations that they lose sight of their first obligation: the supervision of learning. Thus it is that in our opinion. a school which seriously tries to do the best job of educating a community will provide through the services of elementary specialists continuous workshops and discussion groups for parents, teachers, and administrators in which contemporary information about the learning process and its application to particular teaching-learning situations would be studied.

The latter point, that of applying facts from the psychology of learning, is of special interest to us here. We are not suggesting that school people particularly do not know anything about learning, but we are saying that what we know does not always get put into practice. How long, for instance, have we known about the impact of the home, the parents, the early years in the child's life upon his schoolroom experience, and yet, in the face of this, how many programs of parent education for the parents of preschool children are conducted under the auspices of the schools? We have known about the importance of preschool enrichment programs for children from marginally stimulating homes for some time, but we are only beginning to provide such programs through the public schools. There is an important need in education today for all "teachers" to get down to business and study learning, to the end that all children would be enabled to utilize their potential more completely. The regrettable matter is though we are doing a good job in public education, we could still be doing a far better one. It would seem that one of the very important functions of the specialist in the elementary schools would be that of keeping this challenge always squarely before the staff and the parents and assisting them to meet it.

Related to this is the need to look at learning specifically in terms of given subject matter areas. The study of the process of learning, *per se*, is important, but it can become relatively theoretical unless specific applications are made to the classroom situation. Certainly such applications will be couched within some subject area if they are to be truly meaningful, but beyond this point where the subject area exemplifies the point in the study of learning there is need for intensive study of the learning of reading, for example, or arithmetic, or science. Sometimes these areas pose special difficulties and specialists can provide valuable consultative services to all "teachers" here as well. To do this job, however, we will want the services of subject matter specialists and curriculum consultants. If it is possible for them to work in conjunction with the other specialists we have been referring to thus far, all the better, since what will be done under this rubric will prove to be another important form of guidance.

Let us go back to learning to read. Parents often ask "Should we teach our child to read before he enters school?" the answer to this is, "Yes, of course. The truth is that you are teaching him to read whether you want to or not, so you may as well be aware of your influence and wield it intelligently." Parents may teach poorly and thus handicap the child in his later efforts in school, or they may teach him well and provide him with a distinct advantage, but one way or another, they surely teach him to read. Now this sort of discussion needs careful interpretation for what we mean by teaching reading here is not anything that resembles specific word-sentence-paragraph method, or phonics and other word attack skills, but rather steady cultivation of interest in one's surroundings and the many symbols which we constantly confront, the development of interest in the reading process by means described in some detail earlier, and the many other teaching "acts" which parents execute all during the child's preschool years. The truth, of course, is that there is much misunderstanding about the parent's role in teaching reading, and unfortunately there are some who have capitalized on this by producing materials of a "do it yourself" variety for parents, which may, if handled unwisely, have quite the opposite effect on the learner. But where are parents to turn for help with questions like this? We all know that the ability to read well is the key ingredient in all education, and every parent is eager that his child should learn to read as well as possible. But what are we doing to share what we know about this learning process with parents and, for that matter, with teachers?

We would propose that every school provide orientation classes for parents of preschool children on the subject of their role in teaching a child to read, and that selected individuals in the elementary school or consultants from outside the school be given the responsibility for teaching these groups. This will not be the first occasion on which these parents are taught. It will simply be a matter of broadening the teaching function for the school and taking it away from the popular ladies journals which presently are the authority in so many homes on the rearing and teaching of our preschool children. Since we can predict that not all parents will avail themselves of this opportunity it will be of some interest to study the achievement patterns of children as a way of validating the endeavor. We must add, however, that the design proposed has a number of built-in biases which interested administrators and teachers should check with specialists who are knowledgeable in research design before proceeding on any validation study.

The California IRCOPPS project is a case in point here. Concentrating their initial efforts on group counseling with parents, they report that only between 12 and 40 per cent of parents of first grade children who were invited to participate in parent group discussions signified interest in such participation, and then 35 per cent of those failed to show up when the meetings were actually held. At the junior high level they report comparable figures of 8 to 35 per cent *and an attrition rate of 67 per cent!* At the high school level the interest rate was lowest of all, 10 to 27 per cent, but the attrition rate was only 20 per cent (Shaw and Tuel, 1965, P.VI-13). Others who work with parents will not be surprised at these statistics. Vital as we are coming to believe this area to be, parents' involvement in the educational process leaves much to be desired, indeed.

Things that could be taught to parents in orientation programs would be the importance of reading to young children, the selection of appropriate children's books (it is fantastic how little parents know about this field), the importance of communication skills and how they develop, the irrelevance of the alphabet, when to encourage a questioning child, and when to desist from "setting up school" and going too far. (This last, incidentally is one of the most dangerous elements in the "do it yourself" kits available to parents.) Actually, much the same sorts of classes could be run in the areas of math and science, as well as child development, and as we progress in our study of the teaching of these aspects, hopefully we will have much more to include in our efforts to enlist young parents as full-fledged members of the teaching team during their children's preschool years.

But parents are not the only teachers who need in-service assistance in the teaching of subject matter. Curriculum area specialists have a major responsibility to upgrade teaching practices throughout the elementary school through a program of consultative services to teachers and administrators. Again, it is obvious that this is being done in many schools and being done well in some, but our point is here that we have a professional obligation to do it far better in more if not all schools. Here again, of course, we confront the nasty old matter of budgets and administrative provisions, and we will have much more to say about this in the next chapter, but we may as well face it, what we are talking about here starts with the influence of a principal and extends to the superintendent and a board of education.

The school psychologist as consultant about learning

Although the Thayer Report (Cutts, 1955) concludes that one of the functions of the school psychologist is to develop "ways to facilitate the learning and adjustment of children" (p. 30), we found no other references to this role of the school psychologist in the literature of the 1950's. In the White and Harris (1961) volume there is indication that in the future the school psychologist "may find his individual clinical wares in receding favor while demands for attention to group problems mount" (p. 13). They suggest that his consultative services around school achievement and the general problems of motivation and learning will be in greater demand. As the pressures from mounting enrollments increase there is greater appreciation of the schools' need for information about learning and the role of the school psychologist in supplying that need. This is one of the important roles the school psychologist can and should play, and although her book stresses that he is a problem-solver, Gray (1963) does develop the consultative role at some length.

> The school psychologist is in a particularly advantageous position for the bringing about of a certain rapprochement between education and psychology. This is true if he can understand the attitudes of school people and the pressures they feel upon them and if he has the skill to translate research findings and techniques into understandable terms. It is in the field of school learning that a rapprochement is both needed and possible. In a sense, one might suggest that he assume what some persons perceive as the role of the educational psychologist. The psychologist in the school will certainly have much in common with the educational psychologist. The difference, perhaps, lies in the amount of direct participation in the school situation that is expected of the school psychologist. Educational psychology is in itself a broad and diffuse term. Neither equating school and educational psychology nor attempting to draw clear-cut distinctions seems profitable. Terms do not really matter, if we remember that our concern is with the use of present and

> future findings on learning and its attendant circumstances, as these have meaning for school planning (pp. 42-43).

One of the problems with consulting about learning is the tentative nature of our knowledge in the field. There are valid arguments in favor of withholding research findings in the area of learning and as most of us know attempts to apply research results to classroom teaching and learning have been few and far between. Yet, as Gray points out, there is a body of research evidence which is applicable and which is expanding every year.

> A large amount of research exists on the empirics of learning — for example, on massed and distributed learning, retention, and retroactive inhibition. True, psychologists may not have the firmly established and broadly applicable knowledge for which we some day hope. Still, a great deal remains that, either now or in the future, can be tried out in school learning situations. The schools cannot close up shop for a generation or two, while research workers and theorists accumulate the knowledge we need. An informed guess from a learning theorist is a better basis for direction than is the floundering in the dark for which it substitutes. And when informed guesses are coupled with the great deal of empirical knowledge we already have about human learning, we probably have a foundation on which we can at least tentatively build a procedure for planning learning experiences in the schools. Without such communications from psychologists concerned with learning, the teaching profession must make its own attempts to translate research findings into classroom situations. Where psychologists themselves are unwilling to help with a task of making psychology applicable to school situations, it is unfair to blame school people for translations that are halting and extrapolations that are wild (pp. 44-45).

Another topic with which school people must be kept abreast is that of reinforcement. Still another is anxiety and its influence on classroom performance. There is no doubt, as Gray continues, that specialists who attempt to translate research findings for practitioners will be accused of over-simplification and popularizing, but these are the facts of life and a responsible professional must expect to face some serious ethical decisions in the course of his career.

Gray continues:

> The school psychologist, of all members of his profession, should be in the favored position to serve as mediator, or channel of communication, between the psychology of the

> laboratory and the practical situations of the classroom. Experienced and effective school psychologists have always served more or less in this capacity (p. 46).

And again:

> Let us now move on from learning theory and the empirical psychology of learning, as usually defined, to a broader look at some of the concomitants of school learning in children. Again we see much that needs to be done by way of research, and also much that has been done. There is and will be research on the motivation of children in school settings. For example, we find research on level of aspiration and achievement motivation in children, on social class influences upon learning, on teacher characteristics as related to child productivity. Each of these areas is one of crucial concern to the schools. Some of this research is known to teachers. Much, however, is not. Particularly, we might ask, how is the teacher to keep up with the on-going research in all these areas? The school psychologist does not have the only solution, but he may have one effective answer to the problem (pp. 46-47).

This is all well and good, but our view requires that consultation about learning also be extended to include parents. Can the school psychologist expand his role and join others on the school staff and become a parent educator as well? Obviously there must be some limits to how much any specialist is expected to do, and without radical reassignment of time, parent group education is not likely to receive much attention.

Other specialists as consultants about learning

The IRCOPPS reports describe a number of specialists whose training as consultants is a part of the total research endeavor each of four of the centers is undertaking. In describing the work in progress at the University of Texas, Pierce-Jones (1965) summarize how the new specialist works.

> The alternative to direct diagnostic and treatment services for school children which is being investigated in the IRCOPPS-sponsored research program at the University of Texas is the provision of "mental health consultation" services to school people. Since, typically, consultation is sought by teachers and others about the learning and behavior difficulties manifested by children, we have chosen at Texas to refer to our service as "child behavior consultation." The goal of "child behavior consultation," where the school is concerned, is to modify the perceptive-

> ness of school personnel, especially elementary school teachers, and thereby to enhance *their* abilities to work effectively with all children. Consultation, provided in the school by specially prepared Child Behavior Consultants to any professional school person requesting the service, is not "advice giving" in any conventional sense. Neither is consultation a "crutch" upon which the school person should become increasingly dependent in efforts to help children become effective individuals. It is, we believe, a resource through the use of which a school person is likely to learn ways — hopefully more skillful and independent ways — of dealing with children's problems as they arise, and on a continuing basis, in accordance with his own values and styles of behaving.
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> Maddux (1964), has distinguished consultation from teaching, supervision, and psychotherapy.
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> Consultation is not solving a problem for the consultee, but rather it is helping the consultee to do the job by himself . . . In consultation, the primary objective is to help the consultee master a (professional) problem.
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> Hubbard (1965) has made Maddux's point opposite to the school context by observing that
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> the appearance of the consultant represents the most recent recognition of the importance of the teacher in . . . the school's counseling and guidance function (pp. 4-5).

At the University of Maryland the consultants are known as "child development specialists" and in the Western Regional Center the emphasis has been on training counselors to work with groups. It is this last project reported by Shaw and Tuel (1965) which has as its target consultation with groups of parents and groups of teachers. The current report indicates that they began their work with parent groups, and in the coming phases of the project will continue their work with parents and begin consultation with groups of teachers as well. They admit that parents are not the most responsive nor the most responsible group of learners, but despite disappointments, Pierce-Jones indicated that they believe consultation with parent groups is feasible "both from the point of view of the pupil personnel specialist and the degree of parent participation" (p. VI-21).

While reference here is made to "new specialists" what is really meant in many cases is that existing workers have received additional skills to help them carry out new functions on behalf of learners.

Consultation About Learners

Interestingly, there is much more in the professional literature about this aspect of our topic than about that which we have just discussed. It seems that our "child-centered" gospel has borne fruit. Certainly, we have defined most of the functions of specialists in terms of the needs of children, and we have gone a long way to bringing the teacher to a child-consciousness which he did not possess before. There is, as we have pointed out earlier, a real danger here, for we can get so involved in studying the individual that we underemphasize what it is about the individual with which we in the schools should be concerned, namely his learning, and how his learning contributes to the process of his development as an individual. How then, can the specialist function as a consultant about the learner?

Just as it was difficult to separate studying about learning from studying about learning a specific subject, so it is almost impossible to study about learning without studying about the child as a learner. There is great need for studies of the learner to be undertaken by parents and teachers and the specialist could be a resource person for such study programs.

What can be studied about children as learners? One area of great interest to parents and to teachers too, is the area of potentiality and its assessment. Interestingly, we offer very little information about this to parents, perhaps because we feel this is a "veiled" area, but more likely because teachers have only a sketchy understanding of the subject themselves and are understandably reticent to reveal this. Yet what could be more relevant to the guidance of learning activities than a substantive and functional understanding of individual differences?

It seems that we have forgotten one of the important uses to which pupil assessment can be put, namely, the study of individual differences in a classroom and even larger groups within the school. It seems that test results are most often employed when individual children encounter problems, but rarely as a basis for more intelligent planning of the teaching-learning situation. In most instances, the specialist is charged with the responsibility of administering IQ tests and with the general obligation to interpret the findings, but this latter task often goes begging except within the context of individual conferences with teachers or with parents about children who are experiencing some kind of difficulty. This is unfortunate, because a large number of learners benefit little or not at all from our testing procedures when the use of results is so sharply limited. We would suggest that the results of school testing programs be summarized in some detail and made available with interpretive comments to parents and teachers. Parents know that tests are given, but many of them are completely unaware of the purpose or the use to which they are put. Furthermore they are plagued with misinformation and in growing numbers aroused by inflammatory denunciations of testing programs by those who have labeled this "brainwatching" and an invasion of privacy.

Good intelligence tests and achievement tests are useful instruments in teaching. We have every right to be proud of the development of these instruments and should see to it that all who come into contact with them are informed of their value to us all. This of course, assumes that we have a teaching program which utilizes these findings and thus in fact finds them to be valuable. What kind of program does this? Most schools today make some kind of provision for grouping children by ability. Most often this is done on the basis of ability or achievement in given areas with considerable flexibility for the individual child from area to area. Of course, other factors should also be considered in grouping children (Enash 1965). This is a use of test results, but it is only one. We need to use again the results of intelligence tests in providing special opportunities for all youngsters to profit from instruction, but especially those who demonstrate unusual potentiality. We need to take time to identify and cultivate the gifted children in our classrooms. We know that these are the children who can provide the leadership for tomorrow's world. We know that in the main, they have parents who value education highly (Goertzel and Goertzel, 1962) and who will cooperate with the schools in an unparalleled fashion the moment they realize that the school is seriously interested in their child. Perhaps we forget that inequality of education and individualizing instruction, are not incompatible with equality of educational opportunity, nor is it undemocratic.

Unfortunately we have allowed the intelligence test to be "debunked" by those who did not understand its usefulness, and we have not kept ourselves abreast of the exciting developments which have occurred in the theory and practice of intelligence testing in the past fifteen years. If we fulfill our obligation to provide optimal conditions for every learner we will be increasing individual differences and not reducing them. It is not the function of the school to be the great "leveler" in society, but to facilitate individual development and learning. If this is best done by separating children into various groups, developing certain courses, or teaching them by different methods, then we ought to do it. Furthermore, if we are convinced that this is the course we ought to pursue, we recognize again the vital importance of parent and community support and we must set about to develop this. Surely one way is to share these matters with parents and other interested adults through an on-going program of orientation devoted to the implications of our study of individual differences in a given school or community.

A corollary of this is further consultative services about various kinds of learners. Let us begin by suggesting that elementary school specialists consult regularly with parents and teachers of superior students. What do parents need to know about dealing with truly gifted children? Youngsters like this are frequently a mystery to their parents, and certainly do not seem to abide by the usual canons of growth and development. As a consequence there is likely to be misunderstanding and friction which can occasionally assume proportions inimical to the growth and development of talented children. It is notable that Torrance (1964) has written a chapter on the creative child for a volume devoted to descriptions of various kinds of "problem" children. What about the parents of superior, but not gifted children, what are the pitfalls to be avoided? The strengths to be nourished? In the case of superior students parents can probably be of greater help to the school because they are not forced to be defensive and anxious and their task in general is a more pleasant one for all concerned. At the same time they need much help in understanding how a superior child learns and by what special methods he is being taught in school. Both parents and teachers need to know much more about the personality development of superior youngsters, about the special adjustments they are called upon to make and the problems they confront. Not the least of these is mass ignorance about what they are really like, and why they enjoy the kinds of activities they do. Rudin (1958) touches on this in his discussion of anti-intellectualism in the schools. All of us who are in academic work know that the serious student encounters rather serious obstacles in the attitudes of many adults and fellow students as well as some teachers. But there is more than just anti-intellectualism to cope with. These are children who need time to think and room to experiment. They need the right to be as different as other children are different and respected and treated according to their needs.

Another learner who has attracted special attention in the past decade is the underachiever. Ordinarily we associate underachievement with superior ability and the reader with special interest in this problem is directed to an excellent monograph on the subject edited by Miller (1961). We know, of course, that we can also have underachieving students of average ability, and that we must provide services for the early identification of such individuals and more comprehensive programs for rectifying matters. Underachievement is an extremely complex problem and is unlikly, therefore, to respond to some straightforward forms of intervention (Schoenhard, 1958). There are hints in the literature that underachievers are more often found among children who come from homes where parents are less well educated, and this raises the question which is equally appropriate to the discussion of slow learning children that of teacher bias toward learners who do not share their values and do not indicate by their attitude and progress that they are "sold" on school. At the same time that underachievement is associated with insufficient pressure to achieve on the part of parents and teachers, it can also result from excessive demands to attain a level of excellence always just a bit beyond that which the child does reach. Here again we have an important reason for working with parents of preschool children. Increasingly we find reference to the need for specialists in the elementary school to be involved with parents and teachers in the task of facilitating learning (McClure and Schrier, 1956; Hirning, 1958; Hertzman, 1956). From what we know about the difficulty of untangling the skein of the problem of underachievement we might do much better to concentrate greater effort on aiding and fostering achievement.

Average children are the ones upon whom we are accused of concentrating the major portion of our attention, and yet there is much that we are presently learning about learning which could sharply alter the experiences of these children in the elementary school. For example, to what extent have we really exploited audio-visual aids and teaching machines in their instruction. We know that children like this are not as highly motivated as superior children and yet we are probably not too imaginative in the way we structure the learning setting. Furthermore, average children are not necessarily uninterestingly uniform in ability. They have their strengths and should be encouraged to pursue the area of their strengths by parents and teachers alike. We do not suggest that hidden away in each child is some outstanding gift, but we do believe that there is much more competence within average learners than we often bother to try to uncover. It is at this point that our obligations in guidance emerge, and to this end that our present effort is undertaken.

What about the slow learner? It has been said that the most unfortunate child in the elementary school is the one who is too slow learning to keep up with his classmates and yet not slow enough to receive special attention. This includes a large segment of learners and thus presents a formidable problem to us in our consideration of the facilitation of learning in all children. Dealing effectively with these children will require the services of a professional staff which has thorough understanding of the psychological characteristics of these children and the particular teaching techniques most likely to prove beneficial to them. Again, because the program for these children had best be a specialized one, there is the task of interpreting this program to parents and teachers in the hope that combined efforts on behalf of all will keep to a minimum the handicap the slow learner experiences. Disadvantaged though such children may be, the role of the specialists is to certify that provision will be made for his optimal development within the limitations which are his.

At present there are few guide lines to follow. Much more has been written about more severely retarded children. The slow learner apparently has been of less interest to the psychologist and the educator except as he shows up later in the person of the dropout. It is surprising that with all the interest we have had in delinquency and its prevention that we have not made more substantial efforts to ameliorate the plight of the slow learner.

If what we have said earlier is valid then this child is the one most likely to be injured by the experiences he has in learning situations. He it is who most often fails; he it is who bears the stamp of educational disapproval. The frustration that such children experience is keen indeed and often leads to bitterness and resentfulness; such children are not spared the full realization of their inadequacy, a small mercy extended to the more seriously retarded child. It is entirely possible that many of the children who later come to the attention of specialists because they are developing emotional difficulties might not have needed such intensive assistance if we had intervened earlier to prevent the failure which precipitated the emotional and social maladjustment.

If there is agreement on the need for specialists at all in the elementary school it is to be found in discussion of the emotionally maladjusted child. That such children are being found in increasing numbers in the schools is probably a function of increasing pressures upon children to cope with oversized problems as well as improved ability on the part of the teacher to identify and seek help for them. Throughout our discussion we have said little about this child and this kind of work, although it is one of the more traditional roles in which the specialist is cast. Hopefully, it is clear why this de-emphasis occurred. It is surely not that we are unconcerned about emotional disorders in children, but rather that we see this as a symptom of a possible failure to develop competence and thus a condition which should lend itself to amelioration through a more effective program of guidance for many children from as early a point in the life of the individual as possible.

Programs to assist the schools early to identify the emotionally disturbed child are amply reported in the literature (Bower, 1957; Bower, 1960; Adams, 1960). Most of these efforts involve the classroom teacher in some way with the primary responsibility of the specialist again being consultative. Consultation in this area is of course done on an individual basis but can also take the form of in-service training. There are a number of interesting possibilities here for the specialist to explore. In the first place, emotionally disturbed children are difficult children to tolerate in a classroom. In the case of the acting-out child this is obvious, but even the withdrawn unsocial child, thanks to our efforts to alert teachers to the potential seriousness of such behavior, disturbs the conscience of the teacher and thus can become something of a threat to him. In all fairness we should admit with Clise (1957) that few persons are so mature, or well enough prepared to be consistently warm and friendly to these children in the face of the naked emotion they express. Moreover while such children are treated at a mental hygiene clinic they are frequently still in daily attendance in school. This then is an important area for the specialist and the teacher and hopefully one into which the specialist can also draw groups of parents who wish better to understand these conditions in order better to play their role in the facilitation of the child's development.

Specialists as consultants about learners

Helping teachers and parents better to understand children as learners can be accomplished in a number of ways by a variety of specialists. We are thinking here again primarily of the consultative function of the specialist in the facilitating process, although group consultation about learners can also be aimed at assisting in remedial procedures.

Doctors and nurses have much to say to us about the general health and nutrition of the particular group of children who populate a given school. Teachers need to be reminded of the relationship between chronic illness, fatigue, inadequate diet, and endemic health problems to the behavior of the child in school. In addition to regular contributions at staff meetings, the school health specialists can visit the classrooms, playgrounds, and activity rooms in the school and make suggestions to the staff on how to foster the healthy development of all the children. Parents too can be helped to provide an optimal base for their children's school experience by periodic meetings with school health personnel. This need not take the form of a prepared lecture at a PTA or mother's club meeting, but can consist essentially of a brief presentation, film or filmstrip followed by an ample period for questions and answers. This, of course, is a somewhat different role for specialists who are essentially clinical in their orientation, but we believe that so much is to be gained by their participation in group educational endeavors that it will be well worth their added effort in the long run. It is also quite possible that they will enjoy this function.

Through the years that psychologists have served as members of the professional staff of the schools, the functions they perform and the ways in which these services are utilized have gradually changed (Wall, 1956). There has always been much concern in the profession with individual differences and psychometrics, and this information is invaluable to teachers and others who are deeply committed to fostering maximal learning. Bosdell (1961) refers to this background and suggests that as initially described the role of the school psychologist was very much that of a psychometrician. She feels, however, that recent trends show a considerable expansion of that role. In his recent book, Valett (1963) outlines an even broader role for the school psychologist, and one which fits in very well with our suggestions. He identifies the school psychologist with a broad *gauge* guidance program which makes it more possible to educate each child in terms of his abilities and potentialities.

The rather impressive list of duties of school psychologists prepared by the California State Department of Education (Bower, 1955), contains elements of both the traditional view of specialists as problem centered, diagnostic and treatment oriented professionals and our present position that school psychologists are a part of the teaching team and that they have an important function in the in-service training of teachers, administrators, and parents. Results of group tests, the implications and applications of these to the classroom situation as well as the more theoretical material dealing with intellectual development and cognition are some areas in which the psychologist in the schools has much to offer. Other topics of importance to parents and teachers about which school psychologists can be consulted are the emotional development of children, their social adjustment, and the development of adequate concepts of themselves as persons and, more specifically, as learners.

The elementary guidance worker's role overlaps that of the school psychologist in many ways and consequently such a specialist could as well be the consultant in some of the areas mentioned above. The areas of overlap in any given school, of course, must be carefully delineated to avoid conflict in function.

The way the elementary counselor would cooperate with the teacher is well described by Brison (1964).

> In general, the counselor working in the elementary school would concentrate on contributing his psychological and counseling skills to the efforts of the teacher to help the child in the classroom. When combined, the particular skills of the well-trained classroom teacher and elementary counselor can more effectively develop the educational potential of the children in the teacher's classroom. In addition, the bulk of the counselor's work would be with the large majority of children who do not have pathological emotional or behavior disorders and who are not mentally retarded.
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> Psychologists and mental health personnel generally say that a child is "in therapy" when he has contact with the therapists for one or two hours a week. In contrast, the child in a self-contained classroom in the elementary school is under the supervision of a teacher for close to twenty hours a week. *The central idea in this article is that the counselor can have greater impact on both cognitive and affective development if he focuses on helping to make these twenty hours more beneficial.* (Italics mine) Early prevention of problems before they reach major proportions is the aim of the school counselor (p. 42).

We must not conclude that all writers agree with the suggestions made above. Many articles still see the functions of the elementary counselor along more stereotyped lines with much less reference to the essential unity of purpose shared by all school personnel. Teachers hold quite a traditional view of the functions of counselors. Kimbell (1964) asked 105 administrators and 89 teachers in Minnesota what they believed the functions of an elementary guidance counselor were. They indicated four main areas: 1) testing, 2) assist teachers and principals with problem children, 3) work with parents of such children, and 4) direct face-to-face counseling with children. Hart (1961) reports that teachers ranked the importance of selected duties for the elementary counselor as follows:

1. Counseling pupils with learning, physical, social and emotional problems.
2. Interpreting pupil data to parents.
3. Holding conferences with parents regarding any pupil problems.
4. Interpreting pupil data to faculty members.
5. Assisting in placement of pupils in proper classes or in special classes when needed.

6. Acting as a liaison person between school and community agencies.
7. Coordinating the efforts of all specialists working on a case.
8. Acting as a guidance consultant on pupil problems to all staff members.
9. Interpreting pupil data to authorized community agencies.
10. Reporting to the principal annually on what has been accomplished in guidance.

One cannot help but be struck by the constant reference to the interpretation of data, the working with individual cases, and the excessive emphasis on "problem" children. Almost nothing in this list would indicate that there was an awareness that if any reason existed for these services to be extended it was the facilitation of learning (Harper and Wright, 1958). We have a long way to go before we obtain general agreement in the schools with a statement like that of Brison with which we began this discussion of the elementary school counselor. Perhaps one of the obstacles is the meanings a name like "counselor" has for most people. It may well be that this is the reason other titles are being sought and used. The child development specialist, the child behavior consultant and the interprofessional worker are examples of such changes which we have already encountered.

The child development specialist's functions are described in some detail by Levine (1963). Again we see reference to both roles, that of consultant regarding individual children and also consultant to the staff about children as groups of learners, however, the general theme of the writing is much more congruent with the view espoused here than some of the material on the elementary school counselor that we have examined.

> The first major function which the specialist in child development fulfills is to assist parents and teachers in clarifying the expectancies which they hold for the child and in modifying their treatment of him. This function included (1) the collection of available information relevant to an evaluation of the child's development and when necessary, arranging for the acquisition of additional information; (2) evaluating the relationship between the child and the school (i.e., teacher's involvement with the child), parental involvement in relation to the school situation, reaction of the other staff members to the child, relationships between the child and his peers, and the effect of this total milieu on the child's response

> to the school situation; (3) assisting teachers in the study of the socio-psychological environment of the classroom through evaluation of individual and group behaviors, and in the use of this knowledge to further the development of the children involved; (4) assisting teachers and parents to understand their influence on the child's development, and to use this understanding in modifying their behaviors and attitudes toward the child; (5) providing services for the early identification of remedial programs within the school district; and (6) when necessary, referring parents to resources outside the school setting.
>
> The frame of reference which a teacher uses in ordering, categorizing and dealing with data concerning a child accounts in large part for his response to the child. Where the teacher is confused or bewildered by a child and is looking for clues to action, he may respond to a very minor aspect of what he has perceived. Unless a frame of reference is available to the teacher, there may be little extension or application of experiences derived from one child to other children with whom he may be working. The frame of reference a teacher applies is also important as a vehicle for communication with parents and others involved in the child's life and experience.
>
> Thus, the second major function of the CDS is to assist teachers in developing and utilizing a conceptual frame of reference appropriate to the data they use concerning a child and his learning situation. This function might be carried out at two levels: 1) through systematic child study programs with teacher groups, and 2) through collaboration with teachers on individual cases over a period of time (Levine, 1963; pp. 28-29).

It seems that what Levine refers to as "frame of reference" might less cryptically be called understanding the process of learning and the learner. One of the roles, then, of the child development specialist would be to provide and nurture this frame of reference within the staff. An additional refinement which seems to focus the work of this specialist even more is that added by the Maryland group (University of Maryland, 1965) in naming him "child development consultant." In an earlier chapter we have discussed the training of this person, but here we wish to strengthen our argument by citing their reasons for choosing the name they did.

> Rather than refer to these new, experimental, and experimenting functionaries by the algebraic x, we chose to describe them with simple words merely descriptive of their general work. Because they will work with teachers (and other school persons), parents, and children in a

> variety of ways, we found the word "consultant" most descriptive and least restrictive. The area in which they will provide help is so broad as to require the comprehensive word "development." Because they are currently used by us to serve children, we added the word "child." We do not propose adoption of the term "child development consultant" (notice the absence of capital initial letters), nor do we oppose it. We adopted it simply because we needed some name to describe an in-school worker who was going to function in ways differing importantly from traditional counselors and visiting teachers (p. 6).

Thus far we have stressed how important it is for these professionals to help teachers and parents better understand learning and the total development of the learner, even though this has meant deemphasizing the more traditional remedial function of pupil personnel service workers. It seems, however, that many workers in guidance and counseling in the elementary school already recognize the importance of this new emphasis and see a steady trend in this direction. Wrenn (1962) reported that forty-five per cent of the elementary school counselors surveyed believed that in the next twenty years their task would move increasingly toward coordinating the many counseling activities in the schools. They predict that elementary school counselors will spend much more time helping parents and teachers than working with individual children. Even such help, however, could center around the needs of a given family and a particular child, and so, we do need to look at consultative services which may be considerably more specific than such as we have discussed thus far.

Consultation With and About Individual Learners

There will be times when each of the specialists discussed above will be called upon to assist in planning for individual learners. *Not* much imagination is required to visualize teachers consulting with school health personnel, psychologists, school social workers, subject matter specialists, and remedial teachers about certain children with whom they wish to be optimally effective. This is a somewhat more traditional role for them particularly when the child consulted about is experiencing some difficulty. Only rarely have consultants been used in planning the most effective curriculum for a child with particular strengths and special needs.

Preliminary findings from the IRCOPPS project at the University of Texas suggest that when child behavior consultants are made available in the schools, teachers use them most frequently to support a decision about a child at which the teacher has already arrived. The next most frequent consultation themes are underachieving children and parental neglect. Acting-out and disruptive children are often the focus of a teacher's question as are youngsters who have below average intelligence, but are not in the retarded range. They report other themes, but these should suffice to demonstrate that teachers will use consultation in reference to traditional teaching problems. In general, however, the researchers conclude that the consultees are focusing on building the adaptive competence of children (Pierce-Jones, Iscoe, and Friedman, 1965, p. 14). There is also in their report the hint that teachers who consulted with the child behavior consultant may have done so as much for what they as persons might derive from the session as for the help they might have gotten with the children about whom they were ostensibly consulting. Wisely, they suggest that these two matters may in reality be inextricable.

That there is still much focus on the services to individual children in the contemporary writing in pupil personnel services is attested to by the report of the Midwest Regional Center of IRCOPPS. Fundamentally, they ask, "Does what we do in pupil personnel services really effect changes in the children we serve?" (Dunn, 1965; p. 8). Their research is directed at answering this question, though they realize it will involve them in a study of

> the nature, extent, and effect of general school mental health problems; how these problems are spotted, identified, and directed to the appropriate pupil personnel specialist; who the pupil personnel specialists are; what their training and background are; how they interact in their attempt to help children; and finally, how pupil personnel services can be made more effective (p. 8).

At this point their research is not complete, but we can use their plans to suggest how consultation with and about individual learners might materialize. Their research includes three categories of professionals whose training prepares them to work with individual learners within the framework of a diagnostic interview; elementary school counselors, school psychologists, and social workers.

Elementary counselor, child behavior consultant, etc.

The counselor is often seen as an individual who must handle specific behavioral incidents. Unquestionably, there is a point at which intelligent consultation about a child in school will require individual study of that child and elementary counselors are trained to carry out such study. Brison (1964) sketches the following specific tasks for this functionary:

> In many cases, the counselor would approach work with individual children through the channel of teacher referral by the parent or teacher, the fundamental emphasis would be on the child in the educational setting. After receiving the referral, the counselor would undertake what might be termed for our purposes a clinical-educational study of the child. This study would include observation of the child interacting with teachers in the classroom in different types of activities and also observations of the child would also be conducted, but the primary concern of the counselor would not be psychological diagnosis with emphasis on *immediate observable symptoms* of a clinical-psychological and educational nature. . . .
>
> Following the individual examination, the counselor would sit down with the teacher, and they would cooperatively devise a plan of action. . . .
>
> In addition to his own study of the child, the counselor would also help the teacher to develop means of collecting and interpreting information that would be useful in understanding the child. . . .
>
> The counselor may also utilize his training in counseling to work with those children who can benefit by short-term counseling, either individually or in groups. . . .
>
> The counselor with this training conceivably could contribute to teacher committees organized to study such problems as pupil evaluation, parent-teacher conferences (the counselor could also help individual teachers develop skills in conferences), school testing programs, utilization of test data, child study, and vocational study. . . .
>
> The counselor would function as a member of the total pupil personnel team. . . .
>
> The school counselor would undoubtedly work closely with the curriculum supervisor. . . .
>
> The counselor would perform many of the same functions

> and duties as the school psychologist but would work with a different type of child. . . .
>
> When the responsibilities of the elementary school guidance counselor are conceived in the framework suggested here, he can contribute substantially to helping children, parents, teachers, and other school personnel in the educational setting (pp. 42-44).

A few of these tasks go somewhat beyond the realm of individual case study, but in the main they describe a more problem oriented, individual child and family focused consultation. Although again admitting that there is much overlap between counselor and school psychologist, Brison considers the former to be somewhat more concerned with educational achievement and the diagnosis and evaluation of learning difficulties. This seems a difficult distinction and a major distraction for us since it is likely that if we train and employ a separate professional worker to deal with psychological diagnosis we are simply encouraging again the kind of compartmentalization we have stumbled over throughout our discussion.

It would seem that a better solution is suggested by Pierce-Jones, Iscoe, and Friedman (1965). Here the specialist, the child behavior consultant, seeks to help by consulting with teachers about the behavior of a given child, by providing the teacher with insights into the nature of these problems, and with support for the decisions made and the form of intervention adopted. They report that in response to the question, "In what ways did you feel that the consultation service was most helpful to you?" the teachers replied as follows:

Most Helpful Functions:

1. Identifying problems in children
2. Understanding problems in children
3. Confirmation of teacher's judgments
4. More knowledge pertaining to human behavior and emotions

Least Helpful Functions:

1. Help with understanding test results
2. Better knowledge of resources available
3. Gave ideas which I discussed with other teachers
4. Better communication with principal and others in transmitting information about children

> Intermediate Help:
>
> 1. Helping me take a more realistic viewpoint toward children
> 2. Helping me take a more realistic viewpoint toward myself
> 3. Better understanding of my classroom problems
> 4. Helping me better understand the limitations a school system faces in helping a child (p. 17).

The Texas work brings us beyond the point of attempting to dress up old functions with a new label, to a new conception of service to individual learners, teachers, and parents. There is ample room for this to be a team enterprise where a variety of specialists may be available, but at the same time much study is being given to the possibility of a new kind of worker with interprofessional training (University of Maryland, 1965). One might reasonably have expected this in the light of the origin and development of IRCOPPS!

Even young children can be assisted through individual consultation. In discussing the training of elementary school counselors, Ohlsen (1965) points out that some young children can communicate ideas and feelings clearly enough to make the use of this helping technique a live option for the counselor.

> . . . (they) have found that even primary school age children can better convey verbally what bothers them than many noted authors have indicated. True, the counselor must listen very carefully, be patient, and try to help the client fumble for words to express his feelings. On some occasions, the counselor also must use play materials to communicate, but not as often with normal children as psychologists have indicated one must with disturbed children.

In cases where counselors have had difficulty communicating with children, it has been suggested by Kaczkowski (1965) that it is due to the limited vocabulary of children and, as Ohlsen points out above, the counselor may need to help the child choose appropriate words or even teach him new words to help him more adequately express his feelings.

Counseling-type contacts with elementary children which Dinkmeyer (1965) discusses, differ from other counselor-client contacts because emphasis is upon the developmental aspects. He states:

> The need for a distinct child counseling theory arises out of the nature of the child, the school's purpose, and the fact that many children do not need the kind of counseling which has been developed in the field of child psychiatry. The seriously maladjusted or emotionally disturbed, the counselor should help identify and then usually refer to other community resources.
>
> However, counseling at this level must also consider its preventive and developmental function. There is need at the elementary school level for the child to discuss his abilities, interests, achievements, goals and purposes and present functioning. This type of counseling I would refer to as developmental. It would assume no pathology present. It would stress helping the child meet the normal developmental problems and developmental tasks of childhood. This counseling would further psychological growth and development. Its stress would be on development of a self-concept which enables the person to function more effectively (p. 4).

This developmental emphasis is in agreement with the viewpoint of other elementary guidance workers referred to earlier (University of Maryland, and Levine) and stressed in this monograph.

School psychologist

Again, it appears that this specialist is well suited to the consultative function we are discussing. Most often one thinks of the school psychologist in connection with referral of children who present major problems in the classroom. A professional whose long suit is psychodiagnostics, he is the resource logically turned to for definitive information about the intellectual, affective, and adjustmental status of the learner.

Yet we ought not only assist parents and teachers to understand and therefore to accept unpredictable and difficult behavior in children, there are things that we can do to assist in the restorative process. Consultation about disturbed children can seek to increase the competence of those who guide the behavior of these children so that further frustration and alienation is minimized. Schiffer (1960) reports the use of therapeutic play groups in the in-service training of teachers and suggests that the experience broadened their knowledge of child behavior and helped them to function more effectively in the classroom. As we shall see, the school social worker is often called upon to provide such consultative services in a wide variety of situations

(Schour, 1958). By the time a child has developed a sufficiently severe problem for him to have been referred to the school psychologist or social worker, it is entirely possible that the parents are relatively defensive and hard to reach by means other than a casework counseling approach. Remediation of serious disturbance is not for parents and teachers to do. Such efforts require the concentrated attention of a specially trained person for a large block of time, and such a time commitment is questioned by those who look at the total function of the school in the community and have to decide on the most judicious use of the energies of all involved. There is great need for increased services to disturbed children and families, and although we do not include treatment as a central function and responsibility of specialists in the schools, we do not wish to minimize its importance. Although some of the personnel in schools are trained to do therapy (Parker, Olsen and Throckmorton, 1960) most of them are so busy with other obligations that they are required to refer the child to a special class program (Rubin and Simson, 1960) or to child guidance clinics or other available resources in the community (Erwin, Dreisbach, and Graves, 1957; Hoyt and Loughary, 1958). The ability to provide extensive consultative services to individual families whose children are experiencing substantive difficulties in school varies, of course, from system to system, but it is quite unlikely that the demand can ever be met by school-based personnel. Steady expansion of community mental health centers makes possible increasingly strengthened relationships between the school and such resources. At the present time 95% of the population of Minnesota have the services of a mental health center available to them. Even with unprecedented multiplication, however, we know that such centers will not be able to accommodate our growing needs for such services, and this brings us back to the theme of this monograph. We must become increasingly skilled in and dedicated to the facilitation of healthy development and learning so that we begin to reduce the proportion of the population who will require extensive individual care if their difficulties are even to be contained.

We know, of course, and have said that the facilitation of learning and personality development for some children may require individual consultation with a variety of specialists and even some therapeutic intervention. We believe that some such intervention can be accomplished within the framework of schools Still another professional who can be of service here is the school social worker.

School social worker

The social work literature is replete with descriptions of the case work process which a competent school social worker would employ in helping children and their parents surmount a complicated situation involving the child's school experience. Of all the specialists attached to the school staff, the school social worker is most likely to be perceived by his colleagues, and for that matter by himself, as problem oriented. In some ways his work is like that of the school psychologist, but there is greater emphasis upon casework and less upon diagnosis in the social worker's job description. Children with serious behavior and personality difficulties, those who are failing academically without apparent cause, and youngsters who are markedly irregular in attendance are most often referred to the school social worker, and to some extent his role is outlined by the nature of the problem which he confronts in dealing with such children.

DeRoche (1964) has described the responsibilities of the school social worker in the following manner.

> The purpose of the social work department is to help the school identify and work with children who have social and emotional difficulties that stand in the way of learning or of adjustment to the school situation. In accomplishing this objective, the department investigates means of providing individual help for those children who cannot constructively work in the classroom group and helps teachers and parents to understand casework procedures. The social worker helps school personnel to understand the environmental factors outside of the school which affect a child's behavior.
>
> Thus, the function of the social worker becomes clear:
>
> 1. The social worker provides direct casework service to assist individual families with school problems.
> 2. The social worker advises teachers and the principal about children with whom they request help but who have not been officially referred.
> 3. The social worker acts as a liaison between the school and community agencies.
> 4. The social worker cooperates with community agen-

cies by providing pertinent information about a child's school adjustment and achievement.

5. The social worker interprets the services provided by the department to school personnel, parents, and community groups (p. 51).

One of the problems for us which is inherent in the role of the social worker as defined above is stated explicitly by Spence (1954). She suggests that the contribution made by social workers reflects an educational philosophy which "includes not only the transmitting of knowledge and skills but social adjustment as well." This neat dichotomy of achievement and adjustment was no special problem to many earlier workers in the field. There was some realization, to be sure, that unadjusted children would experience learning difficulties, but the reverse, which is our dominant theme, was rarely verbalized. Not often did we find reference to becoming adjusted through learning; or conceptualize the adjustmental process as a learning process; actually, few refer to it in this way even today. Yet the idea that adjustment is facilitated by accomplishment and achievement holds exciting promise for many more pupils. It is for this reason that we are concerned today with guidance for all children, and that we place increasing emphasis upon the early experiences of the child as critical to his later learning, adjustment and total development. Bloom (1964) points out the varying degrees of development of reading skills, vocabulary, I.Q., etc. in the early elementary years and it is reasonable to assume that the social and emotional aspects may follow a similar pattern of development. Bloom indicates as these characteristics mature and become more stable they are less likely to be susceptible to change or remediation.

For this reason it is significant that spokesmen for school social work are emphasizing increasingly the role of the social worker in the prevention of learning difficulties in the elementary grades. One form which this may take is assisting the young child to solve his problem of reluctance to go to school (Parker and Reiss, 1962). We believe that the very first experiences a child has with the school can leave lasting and powerful impressions and for this reason efforts directed at reducing the possibility that these experiences will be unpleasant and frustrating are certainly a part of the facilitation process. Reluctance to go to school is frequently related to separation anxiety which usually responds quite well to perceptive handling by teacher and consultant. When such help succeeds we avoid the complicating problem of new anxiety aroused by failure to behave in the expected manner, but if the reluctant child does not receive help early his difficulties compound and become increasingly resistant to analysis and straightforward intervention.

In a somewhat broader sense, the social worker's efforts are directed at helping the young child develop sufficient social competence to remain an effective member of the learning group (Cox, 1963). We have already indicated that this is also a major responsibility of parents, but undoubtedly some of them will need assistance with this task. We must repeat at this point, however, that the social adjustment of the child is also a function of his experiences in the classroom and not just a matter of his preschool or out-of school experiences. Thus, teachers too, by providing opportunities for the children to succeed in their endeavors and thus obtain deep personal satisfaction as well as peer approval, are helping the individual learner to come to grips with some of the misgivings and uncertainties he may have about coming to or remaining in school.

In a still broader sense, Stringer (1964) suggests that consultative services should be provided for parents during their children's preschool years. She reminds us that "The importance of the early school years, not only for a child's subsequent school career, but often for his whole life as well, has probably received more earnest lip service and less honest attention than any other facet of school mental health work" (p. 98). These remarks are especially poignant because they point to the futility of this entire volume if what is said here does not eventuate in demonstration project, evaluation and then, hopefully, more widespread utilization. In her opinion, psychiatric social workers in the schools should involve themselves with parents before there has been any possibility of referral.

> It is proposed here that school psychiatric social workers press for preschool orientation meetings for parents and for their own regular participation in them, and that they follow up with a built-in plan for individual interviews — mandatory and routine — with every one of these parents before the end of the "expectancy" period as a

> way of improving relations with parents in the community and thus function more effectively in their jobs. But this is not to propose a series of simple "get-acquainted" chats. What is called for is a new, skill-stretching kind of work. Note that the "expectancy" period involves a peculiarity for the social worker in that it is only *before* a child has been officially measured and appraised that the worker can talk with the parents without prejudice, without foreknowledge of psychopathology present and active, with — in fact — foreknowledge that about 70 percent of the time, on the average, he will be interviewing parents whose children are well. He will not be going in armed — or armored — with a referral statement about the child, a "presenting problem," or a "chief complaint" to guide him. Instead he will be going in with only a clean face sheet and whatever diagnostic and therapeutic skills he can command. The difficulty of the task may go far toward explaining why workers choose to keep so busy with the sick, but for people who have done so much crying about how few workers there are to meet an enormous need, their "busyness" is thin cover, and their squirrel-in-a-cage propensities show through (pp. 102-103).

It is suggested that social workers take a lesson from pediatricians who are quite willing to work within the structure of well-baby clinics because by doing so they are able to do so much more for so many more. Early contact between consultants in the schools and parents of preschool children will pave the way for much more effective relationships throughout the learner's educational sojourn while at the same time enabling detection of incipient difficulties when they are most easily dealt with and corrected.

Providing services locally

We have been able to describe a variety of ways in which the specialist can function to supplement and support the facilitative function of the teacher and the parent and, to a certain extent, operate directly with the individual to assist him in the process of becoming an adequate person, especially as the process is available to him in the school setting.

Student populations vary from community to community and even within the same community there are major differences in the needs of learners. As a point of departure in making judgments about adding staff, each school district should make some attempt to identify student developmental needs. The unmet needs should be studied in light of psychological services* presently available in the school and community designed to meet these needs.

Whether or not a school adds a social worker, psychologist, school nurse, elementary guidance consultant, etc., will depend upon local needs although it should be stressed that the focus here is upon a developmental framework which means going beyond the limited scope of the treatment viewpoint as needed for the problem-centered situation. Developmental considerations centering around maximizing the potential of all students means utilizing, in positive ways, efforts of all adults, parents, teachers, administrators, and specialists. This may well be the kind of service a school will want to start with since the focus is upon facilitation of growth and learning in all children and this provides the positive orientation basic to a program of prevention. Exactly what staff a local school provides and in what order is, as mentioned above, an internal consideration, but all the services i.e. facilitation, psychological testing, diagnosis, family casework, and school nursing should be available to *all* schools in some form. However, the local school doesn't have to provide all these services within the school since many smaller schools find it more appropriate to draw upon some of these services through various public and private agencies in the community.

A suggested model

In an effort to make operational some of the concepts identified in this monograph, a demonstration model has been developed (see Appendix I, p. 207).

Many aspects of an organized program have been included — general goals of education; basic assumptions about learning, the nature of the learner, elementary guidance; the goals of elementary guidance and the role of specialists as facilitating agents are discussed and described. Schools interested in experimenting in this area of educational services are encouraged to study this model. Essentially the position taken in the suggested model is that the role of the elementary guidance worker (elementary guidance consultant, child development specialist, interprofessional worker, etc.) is a function of how we believe children learn and grow into adequate persons and to a large extent is defined by the process and the goals of education. We have attempted to identify those functions which are facilitative in nature and those related to and supportive of other staff functions on behalf of the individual.

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*Most of the services available, whether in the school or in the community, are problem-treatment oriented although it should be pointed out that many community mental health centers in Minnesota devote a regular part of staff effort to educating the community about mental health and about how to deal positively with emotionally disturbed individuals in the home, school, community, and/or on the job.

Federal funds make local experimentation possible

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 has been expanded to provide money for elementary guidance and the present plan in Minnesota is to support demonstration and pilot projects in order that future programs will be soundly based. Evaluation of these projects will provide guidelines not only in future program planning, but will give direction for the preparation and certification for elementary guidance personnel*.

Guidelines have been developed for schools interested in pilot and demonstration projects in elementary guidance. The minimum standards of the NDEA guidelines are contained in the Supplement to Code: XXX-B-20, located on page 220.

A number of schools have used Title I funds from the Elementary-Secondary Education Act of 1965 to initiate elementary programs. Schools interested in using these funds are encouraged to follow the guidelines for demonstration projects under NDEA referred to above.

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*Preparation standards for school social workers and school psychologists have already been established.

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Chapter 6

The School Administrator and the Guidance of Learning

> So complex is the process of promoting the development of human beings that every school, even the best, is in constant need of adjustment and improvement. A school should be a vibrant, changing place. For the flexible, creative administrator there are ample opportunities — indeed challenges — to change. In addition to the ever-present need for better use of existing knowledge, facilities, and methods, there is a steady procession of new books, new programs, new mechanical devices, new suggestions for division of responsibilities among teachers, and new knowledge about learning. (Educational Policies Commission, 1962. p. 25).

The Administrator as Educator and Leader

In an earlier chapter we asserted the need for a school administrator to stand tall in his community as a symbol of the pursuit of excellence through learning and a person deeply committed to learning about the educational process. Most of the suggestions we have made thus far are contingent upon the endorsement and active support of the school administration. If these views are not espoused at least in their broad dimensions by superintendents, supervisors, and principals, there is little likelihood that much will be accomplished along the lines described. Our view is that guidance is the facilitation of individuality through learning and that all who influence this process function to some extent under the direction of an administrator. For this reason it is of utmost importance that the educational leaders in a community see themselves as learners among learners, possessed of sufficient openness to welcome experimentation and the application of experimental findings even though this may require innovation and revision and disturb the *status quo!* Hopefully, this is the frame of mind which will be "built into" an increasing number of future educational administrators as a part of their training.

But for the superintendent alone to possess such views is not enough; he must be capable of commanding the respect and trust of his community so that what he believes to be right for them is what they will be willing to try. He must be the unquestioned leader of learning in his district, not in the sense that no one dare ask of him the reason that a particular procedure is being adopted, but in the sense that no one has any question as to where exciting educational ideas and philosophy as well as challenging teaching techniques originate or at least are always welcome and encouraged. It is time that the professional educator again enjoyed the status of a true professional. There has been so much downgrading of his rank that the citizens of many communities feel no hesitance to question his judgment every step along the way. It has been suggested that everyone considers himself an expert in education, and, of course, if this is true, then sadly, there are no experts in education. Most of us would not consider questioning the decision of our attorney, our minister, or our physician in most matters pertaining to their specialty, and in many instances we are ready to risk all that we have on their judgment. Unfortunately, this is not true with respect to most educational leaders. For some reason we do not see them to be people of distinction and stature equal to those in some other professions.

It is hard to understand why we are unwilling to afford our educational leaders the respect and status that the responsibility we place into their hands, namely the education and welfare of our children, deserves, but it is probably an extension of the middle-class bias which we have already seen middle-class fathers hold toward education as a future occupation for their sons (Aberle and Naegele, 1952). One hesitates to accuse our society of outright materialism, but it is hard to avoid the impression that if educators were among the highest paid citizens in our communities the status afforded them and the heed paid to their suggestions, opinions, and direction would be much more substantial. Furthermore, under such circumstances, the caliber of people attracted to the profession would be correspondingly high, standards of excellence could be elevated and maintained and in the long run all of us would stand to profit from the investment. But as things are now one can only conclude that there is enormous room for improvement in the status of teachers and administrators in our communities. Wolpert (1961), for example, submitted a list of characteristics to 143 experts on the subject of professionalism in order to determine the status afforded teaching. He concluded from an analysis of 92 of the 105 returned questionnaires that teaching has not achieved professional status commensurate with the fundamental importance of its service. All of us know that this is a potentially dangerous situation, and that it is doubtless a major factor in the development of anti-intellectualism to say nothing of its obvious connection with the problem of strained teacher-pupil relationships and learning disability in today's schools. Actually, in the face of obstacles such as these, one cannot but marvel at the quality of education most children are receiving, but neither can we forget that tremendous further potential might be uncovered if we were ever to rid ourselves of some of these subtle but significant factors which have a deleterious effect upon the learning process.

In the face of this one might well ask what there is to be done. How can handicaps such as disrespect and low status be overcome. The situation, of course, is a cyclical one and thus resistant to efforts at intervention, yet it seems that some efforts might be made which could mark at least a beginning in the process of reestablishing the position of the educator and schoolman to one of appropriate prominence in the community.

In the first place, it would seem that school administrators must begin again to play their prophetic role in society. It should be the educational leadership which assesses the character of the citizens of a community and when such character is found wanting, schoolmen should speak out publicly for its improvement. It should be the educational leadership which continually assesses the quality of education in a society and where such self-appraisal uncovers inadequacy it should speak out for its improvement. In a sense the school through its staff should function as a substantial part of the conscience of the community. Yet all too often educators have proved insensitive to the important needs of their times and have rather gone about perpetuating a system for the sake of system with the result that groups within the community have had to point to inequities, shortcomings, and abuses even within the school system itself. How long will education require the prodding of external pressure groups before it is willing to be autocritical? Is not this precisely the sort of situation which spawns mistrust in the profession of education and which contributes to its "semi-pro" status. Unfortunately, it is against the very thing of which it is itself so guilty that education should be speaking, namely, resistance to change, apathy, and indifference in the face of startling revisions in life patterns and social organization which surround us the world over. If the very institution in which learning and change are to be fostered is reluctant to evaluate what it is doing in the society which supports it, and in which it can be instrumental in effecting such change, then it is no wonder that the process of community renovation and reorganization is so tedious, painful, and drawn out.

We hear so much these days about our need for direction and meaning. Whence is it to come? Whose is the obligation to look critically at our value structure? Probably no one person or agency, but undoubtedly the school must assume a large share of the responsibility for lending life meaning and direction. But one might ask how any school administration could undertake such a task without close and continuous contact with the community. The answer is, of course, that it couldn't. Its prophetic role would not require that it transform the community singlehandedly, but simply that it serve as the persistent and audible voice of conscience, calling for continuous social improvement and being always ready to cooperate in the implementation of the changes it recommends.

It might be well, therefore, for school administrators to urge the establishment of a citizens committee on education which could serve in an advisory capacity to the board of education. Far better to have urged its formation and to be working with it cooperatively than to have it generated in response to a need which the community senses before we do and thus be forced into a defensive posture toward it. This would amount to the school administration consulting with its constituency, and in so doing, in addition to obtaining much valuable information for educational planning, making very sure that the channels of communication between them are kept open. Such ease of communication fosters rapport between educators and parents, and such mutual understanding and trust is an essential ingredient if learning in the community is to be improved perceptibly. Since such improvement must entail innovation and experimentation, a school administrator will covet the good will and confidence of his people, for without it, there is little hope for social improvement, but with it he can exercise genuine leadership and begin to pursue excellence and all that contributes to its development.

Experimentation and innovation in education is not new or unusual. There have been varieties of attempts, some well known, some relatively unknown, to alter conditions in order to facilitate learning. Probably the most notable of these was the experiment which came to be known as "progressive education" which unfortunately has been much maligned by people who do not really have the facts about the benefits which accrued to learners and to learning as a result of the innovations which were a part of that program. The experiment was a very logical outgrowth of the mounting evidence from studies of individual differences and the learning process which were conducted so vigorously in the early decades of this century. If revision in the educational system resulted from the scientific study of learning and the learner, one would expect experimentation in schools now to reflect contemporary research in a similar fashion. And this is what we find.

One area in which we find a number of experimental ventures is the education of exceptional children. There has been, for example, much significant basic research done in the past decade on the slow learning and mentally retarded child. Correlatively we find a number of suggested innovations in methods of teaching such children (Bloom and Murray, 1957; Bolzau and Keltz, 1956; and Lapp, 1957). More recently, a concentration of research interest has appeared around cognition and this has been accompanied by a flurry of activity in the schools to provide programs capitalizing on the new knowledge which we have about the importance of early stimulation to maximum intellectual development (Della-Dora, 1962; Educational policies Commission, 1962; Passaw, 1963).

In a way this all boils down to the need for continuous evaluation of the curriculum and experimental endeavors founded in research directed toward the improvement of the conditions under which individual learning and personal development take place. For this to occur in sufficient amounts to make some real inroads into the educational program of our communiunties will require the genuine commitment of superintendents and principals. Although much can be accomplished by individual teachers, unless there is constant pressure from the top for creative teaching, honest appraisal of current procedures, and innovative solutions to problem conditions uncovered thereby, our progress will be slow indeed. A study by Holmes and Finley (1957) suggests that there is an urgent need for re-evaluating the relative importance of courses in school curriculum. They analyzed the results of achievement tests for a group of elementary school children and found that reading vocabulary and spelling were the two most important determinants of grade placement deviation in grades five through seven, while arithmetic reasoning and arithmetic fundamentals appeared to play almost no part in determining promotion, retardation, or acceleration in the school system under study. Should these findings be validated by similar studies in other school systems we would have to consider seriously placing much more emphasis upon the development of language skills in the early years in school even at the expense of some other subject such as arithmetic. The fundamental importance of communication skills has been testified to by others (Furness, 1956; Hess, 1964) and the suggestion above, revolutionary as it may sound to some educators, if implemented, might mark a significant step in the process of curriculum revision and improvement.

If, however, these ideas are a bit disconcerting to educators, think of how disturbing they will be to the layman. What is the parent to think when drastic changes are made in the curriculum? Most certainly he will want the reason for the change and will probably resist it as all of us are prone to resist shifts in living patterns of all kinds. As we have pointed out before, the ease with which the change may be accepted will in large part be a function of the confidence the community has in its schools and their administration, and this confidence must reflect before all else, the adequacy of communication between educator and parent. A typical example of this occurred recently when some communities changed the school entrance age. Where children had had to be five by December 1st in order to enter kindergarten the September before, they were now required to be five by September 1st. Although this change was made in part temporarily to alleviate overcrowding in the schools due to the population explosion, it was also based on evidence that increased chronological age at entrance into school was associated with improved performance in school learning tasks. The additional maturity which older children possessed gave them a decided advantage and promised successful experience at the outset of formal schooling to a larger proportion of learners. Here is good evidence that effective learning depends not only on the teacher, circumstance, etc., but also on the learner himself and his growth aspects. This administrative decision, though admittedly open to question in the case of individual markedly deviant children, made good sense. It promised to the majority of children greater protection against failure in the beginning years in school and for that reason it was wise guidance of learning. But it took courageous administration to make it stick. There was heavy opposition from "disappointed" parents. Gradually, however, the furor died down and the policy continued. Unfortunately, to our knowledge, no substantial follow-up is being made of this, but one can only hope that educational research will uncover evidence of the superiority of such an organizational procedure in our program of mass public education if it is to be retained as sound educational practice. Again then, the acceptance of change and confidence in the school can be facilitated by communication with parents. Guidance is the facilitation of learning and competence and the administrator has within his reach the basic components of the facilitative process. He it is who can spur reorganizational efforts along lines suggested by research, since he plans the budget and to a large extent recommends the policies which determine the quality of the professional staff. In addition he is responsible for the relation of the school to the community which ultimately is the point upon which all else is hinged. Up to now we have made all kinds of suggestions about how growth and learning might be facilitated by many different individuals, but in almost every instance we had to admit that in the final analysis the posture and stance of the school administration would have an undeniable impact upon the success of any such efforts.

The Training of Administrators

If so large a part of successful intervention in the cycle of failure and frustration to which we have been addressing ourselves is the responsibility of school administrators, we must consider how well their training prepares them for such responsibility. The truth is that there are some very remarkable educational leaders among the ranks of school administrators as well as some who are considerably less inspiring and creative.

When we ask what might have contributed to these differences we are likely to have to conclude that the former probably do not owe their adequacy to specialized training in school administration, but rather to other educational and personal experiences. An exciting and provocative undergraduate career, or at least exposure to a fair number of venturesome, innovative instructors, may be an important element in shaping the mentality required by the kind of job we believe needs doing. A challenging and partially unsuccessful teaching experience in the elementary schools, preferably with some experience teaching in the primary grades, may well be the goad necessary to spark a dynamic and effective career in elementary school administration.

Some of Torrance's observations about creative development are relevant here, even though he is speaking of the training of young children. He maintains that creative development need not decline at Grade 4. He suggests instead that certain teaching techniques increase original thinking, and here it seems he is talking also about our problem. He mentions that evidence from investigations in Samoa link decline in creativity to the low evaluation placed on adventurousness and curiosity and the high value placed on promptness and competitiveness (Torrance, 1962). There can be no doubt that our burgeoning technocracy and all the red tape which accompanies it stand directly in the path of creative innovative thought and action on the part of school administrations. It will take a highly dedicated leader to brush this necessary but nuisance detail aside, delegate it to underlings and move on to spearhead his community's drive to minimize educational failure and to maximize the opportunity for each learner to achieve well beyond what he might ordinarily achieve in a mediocre school situation.

But so much of our professional training in educational administration and supervision seems devoted to acquainting future educational leaders with the endless detail of the task, that without knowing it they are often hopelessly enmeshed in a "system" before they can begin to do any real planning on their own. The sheer mechanics with which, unfortunately, so many administrators are expected to involve themselves, can make demands upon time and energy which are so total that nothing remains for those activities about which we have been concerned.

There have been suggestions through the years that graduate training in administration and supervision place more emphasis upon the learning process, its facilitation and guidance, but it will require a completely new outlook on the learning-teaching situation before anything much happens. Here as in other things we are up against a tradition which is not going to yield to change very easily. We must live up to our obligation as responsible professionals who understand learning and the learner and initiate innovative practices where experience has evidenced a need.

How do you train a dreamer, a visionary, an idealist, and adventurer? And, some might add, a salesman, a missionary, a leader of men, and a responsible manager? Surely, if the school administrator of the future should be all these rolled into one, we have an enormously challenging task on our hands. One thing is obvious. We will not do all this during a graduate degree training program. Even the challenging and liberal undergraduate experience to which we referred above coupled with a learning and learner-oriented graduate program will not suffice. As we see it there are two other basic ingredients. One is the living demonstration of a commitment to learning along with the growth and change which such learning requires. We have used the term "learner among learners" before and we restate it here. To exercise educational leadership, to demonstrate real stature as an academician means to be constantly involved in learning about learning and about oneself along with other members of one's staff. In-service training must not be thought of solely as a grading procedure or a gap-filler, but as an integral element in the life of all educators. Unless each of us keeps his hand in the research and development phase of the teaching-learning process we are likely to go to sleep at the switch. Many a school system which at one time enjoyed an enviable reputation as a pace setter has settled back upon its laurels attempting to deceive itself and others that it could remain an outstanding system indefinitely. But the reputation wears thin rather quickly. In our day where change is perhaps the only easily predictable circumstance of the future we cannot hope to discharge our obligation to the individual sitting by and exuding confidence in our present condition, excellent though it may be. We must be prepared to devote more of our time and energy to research and experimentation in education, and if this is to take place to any substantial extent the leadership will have to come down from administration. But it will not be forthcoming unless in the training of administrators, both pre- and in-service, they are heavily exposed to, involved in, and sold on an experimental, innovative, creative, and venturesome approach to the process of education in today's communities.

The second basic ingredient is bound up with the first. It is the establishment of an atmosphere in which future school administrators can grow up fascinated by learning, challenged by their teachers and parents, and in general excited by the process of discovery and creation. To some extent this drive to experiment must be nourished over the long haul if it is to withstand some of the opposition which, though well intentioned, discourages changes in our way of organizing the school. It is for this reason that the development of a new "Weltanschauung" is an extremely difficult thing. Just where does one begin to tackle the problem? What can one do about all the entrenched forces which already have large investments in a given mode of operating and threaten to cripple our efforts to recast the outlook of us all? We shall never produce the desired effect by conferencing the problem to death. We need some heroic administrators who have caught the vision and will lead the attack. There will be others who will follow.

Experimentally oriented and research informed administrators are the key to continuous improvement in the schools. It may require a quite new conceptualization of the purpose of the schools, the learning process and teaching procedures, but having caught a glimpse of what is possible within a given community, such leaders will soon find strong forces from other portions of the academic community at their side.

Innovative Programs

We would like to explore some of the innovations which have been and which might be attempted under the direction of the school administration in an effort to structure a setting optimally conducive to individual growth and learning in the elementary school years.

Grade level reorganization

We need very much to look at our schools and their grade level organization to see whether it best meets the needs of growing children today. There is considerable concern today that children are being deprived of the right to be children. The complicated organization of urban society makes demands upon them to assume responsibility and discard the lackadaisical and carefree attitude of childhood at increasingly early ages. One wonders to what extent the "junior" high school is an agency which contributes to the early demise of childhood. Just the name alone indicates how it foreshadows a future "senior" state. One of the most serious developments in the contemporary urban character is the inability and unwillingness to postpone gratification. It is understandable that people living under the threat of the "bomb" would tend to be impatient, but we must be careful not to deny ourselves and our children the experiences of real gratification which accompanies the *process* of attaining a goal in our headlong quest for the goal itself. Adult status in our society is a goal almost universally coveted by youth, although some cynical adults wonder why this should be so, yet part of the richness of childhood is the anticipation of adulthood, the process of becoming while not yet being adult.

The right of children to be children and adolescents to be adolescents is one in which the school is very much involved, since it can either resist or succumb to community pressure to "force" children to grow up too fast. It must be made clear to parents that the emergence of preschools in ever-increasing numbers, the "new" math, and the emphasis on science does not represent an attempt to get children ready for adult life sooner, but rather to give children the quality of education which more completely challenges the enormous potential within each learner which heretofore has been left untouched. Just because children are maturing physically at an earlier age and conversing more fluently about increasingly complex phenomena does not mean that they are ready for an adult role at an earlier moment, but only that the human organism is realizing a greater segment of its potential for development and learning. Actually, of course, our world demands more education and longer periods of time spent in preparation for adult status than was formerly required and in the face of the fact that most young people are in their mid-twenties before they really take their place as effective contributing members of a community, one wonders why all the rush to get children "grown up" as rapidly as possible.

It is at this point where the schools can take a stand on behalf of childhood. They can resist the pressure from frantic parents to have children get over-organized and over-involved at too early an age. Actually if optimal learning is to be promulgated we shall have to come out again in favor of more solitude and not so much togetherness. Unfortunately, this represents something of an about face for education which has tended in the past to emphasize conformity and social adjustment to a degree which may have interfered somewhat in the academic and intellectual progress of pupils. But this is not too serious a problem. In truth, education like any applied science must be ready to alter its approach in keeping with the direction research is trending, and need not apologize when that direction is markedly divergent from an earlier one. On the contrary, the more tragic situation prevails when education knows it should do differently but fails to change its course because it fears public reactions, albeit unintelligent ones, such as "when will you make up your minds" and "first one thing and then another."

One way in which schools might counteract the trend toward too-early involvement of children in the behavior patterns of adults would be by a grade level reorganization which would group children into preschool, lower, middle, and upper school categories. The present junior high school arrangement promotes the idea that these three years are very much like the high school years only three years earlier. This concept, of course, suggests that youngsters really have very little to look forward to when they reach high school because they have sampled most of its qualities in diminutive form already. It would seem that a schoolwide preschool program under the auspices of the public school system has much to recommend it especially for certain kinds of children. Next then, the lower school could contain K-4, the middle school 5-8, and the upper school 9-12. This type of organization is presently employed in Solon, Ohio and in a brochure describing the Arthur Road School, a middle school we find the following explanation.

> Education is least effective at the early adolescent level in many American communities. The child will undergo tremendous physical, psychological, social and emotional changes during grades five through eight. Such a child is not ready for a high school experience nor is he ready for a modified version of it. On the other hand, he needs something different from those elementary school experi-

> ences he has had. Thus we have a middle school — a school which is as unique as the age group it serves — a school which is dedicated to the physical, mental, social, and emotional growth and development of young adolescents. (Brochure: *Presenting the Arthur Road School — The Middle School.* Solon, Ohio).

As in the Solon, Ohio example each of these units could be separately housed and administered to promote maximum physical, mental, social and emotional growth of each unique developmental level. What is presently referred to as an ungraded primary program could, of course, be the plan followed in each of these schools with promotion on the basis of individual competence rather than tenure.

While speaking of general reorganization we should make another suggestion which requires administrative action. Earlier we referred to the preponderant number of boys who fail in the beginning grades in school in comparison to girls. Kagan (1962) you will remember suggested that the sex of teachers in the primary grades may have more than a little bearing on this finding. While it is true that more school systems are utilizing a single salary scale for teachers in high school and in the elementary school, there are still very few men who teach in the primary grades. Though the number in elementary schools has increased, we are still stuck with the archaic notion that they are more appropriately assigned to the upper grades. If we really believe what we have said earlier about the importance of the early school experiences we should seriously consider two steps. First, we should provide all children in school opportunity to be taught by both men and women. This means teachers of both sexes in all grades in the traditional set-up or in every school (including preschool) in the ungraded reorganized setting described above. Second, we should assign our most able teachers to the primary grades and thus insure maximal opportunity for success at the outset. To do this, of course, may require that we be willing to reward merit with status and salary, so that rather than these grades being seen as the place to begin and just steppingstones to higher status in the faculty, these years become the most coveted ones to be allowed to teach.

Still another suggestion along the same lines. Class size and pupil-teacher ratios should be adjusted in terms of the need for individual attention which learners require. Even if the budgets for education in a given community cannot be markedly increased, they should unashamedly be allotted to permit much higher expenditures per pupil in the earlier years of school. This is the time when small class size, teaching excellence, and the service of specialists is most needed. A greater investment at this point will result in less costly education later on, since the remedial needs of large numbers of upper grade children and the special facilities required to correct defects which might earlier have been prevented are extremely costly indeed.

Programs for preschool children and their parents

In consideration of all that has gone before, it seems that this is the area in which an administrator could make his most valuable investment in the facilitation of success. So much evidence points to the early school experience as crucial to the achievement patterns of children that priority must be given to programs aimed at enhancing a child's opportunities for success in his beginning school years. This early experience becomes the foundation for future achievement and thus represents one of the child's principal developmental needs. Today, of course, this matter is the focus of much attention. We note that early in the report of the Research Conference on Education and Cultural Deprivation held at the University of Chicago in 1964, emphasis is placed upon the importance of early experience (Bloom, Davis, and Hess, 1965). The need to achieve and thus gain approval from the school as a significant agency of his world is of basic importance to the child. Failure brings censure and disapproval which, as we all know, can intensify the emotional problem and increase the likelihood of further failure. Evidence from the study of school dropouts indicates that the failure cycle begins early. It is now possible to predict the dropout student as early as the end of the third grade. Not only is failure in school cumulative, but the impact of such failure is deleterious to the self-concept and general personality development.

But where do we intervene to break this vicious cycle? We would intervene early and we would intervene with a program which includes parents, particularly parents of preschool children. Principally, it would seem that we must assist the parents to prepare their child for school so as to enhance as much as possible the likelihood of success for that child in the elementary grades. In line with the discussion in Chapter 3, we suggest that parents be helped in four areas of role performance which we believe are directly facilitative of children's academic success. These four areas of parent role performance are:

1. To provide a child with a sense of trust in others, a sense of security in family and community, feelings of personal worth, well-being, and adequacy;

2. To provide a child with an adequate repertory of social skills so that he can profit from group learning experiences;

3. To provide on-going readiness for learning by means of direct and indirect intellectual stimulation and cultivation of areas of talent;

4. To provide the child with a value system compatible with that of the American middle class, with particular reference to the schools and the learning process.

We believe that intervention of this sort, which constitutes a program of primary prevention of learning failure is the central need in elementary school guidance. It is for this reason that we urge administrators to begin an effective program of guidance in the elementary school. Some efforts, of course, have already been made in this direction. The importance of preschool experience is acknowledged by the growing numbers of experimental preschools being established within the public school systems. Many of these have received widespread publicity because they have been developed in impoverished areas and coincide well with our contemporary attack on the problem of poverty. The majority of these programs, however, have concentrated on the children and have done little or nothing to affect a change in the parents. Such an omission runs counter to a basic assumption which undergirds much of our thinking on this subject. As we have already said, we believe that parents are the most vital agent in the education of the young child, and consequently we believe that any program aimed at enriching the child's experiential background must provide prior parallel experiences for the parent so that experiential dissonance between parent and child is minimized. Simply to broaden the base and extend the horizons for the child without doing the same for the parent is likely to prove educationally uneconomical and psychologically unsound, since it may unduly increase the distance between parent and child. To alienate child from parent, or to direct efforts toward helping youngsters outdistance parents is to risk defensive retaliation from parents whose self-esteem may be threatened by the child's new knowledge and changed status. In trying to save face, such parents may oppose our efforts to help the child, may depreciate the child's accomplishment, and may harbor resentments which are directed against the child and teacher as sarcasm and ridicule. This point is made very well by Bloom, Davis, and Hess (1965):

> The parents must be sufficiently involved in the nursery school kindergarten to understand its importance for their child and to give support and reinforcement to these special schools. The parents should be so committed to this type of school that they are willing to do everything possible to insure the continuity of the child's school experiences (p. 19).

Although much of what is said above is particularly relevant to our efforts in lower socioeconomic settings and requires more education for parents, we should agree that some homes in which there is economic poverty are providing valiantly for the educational readiness of the children who reside within them, and even more certainly, a substantial number of economically prosperous homes are producing children who are deprived indeed. Especially is this true in the area of attitudinal readiness. Many children in upper-middle class settings are exposed to attitudes in their parents which are inimical, if not to their progress in school, then certainly to their realizing anything near their genuine learning potential. Some of their parents, while ostensibly professing concern for the youngster's education by investing sums of money in the "best" schools, often behave in ways which belie this. They may fail to reward effort and achievement, since for their economic security this is quite unnecessary. Their own level of motivation and aspiration as a function of having already "arrived" may be implanted in their children without either parent or child knowing that such a process was underway. The presence of many things in such homes, and the opportunity for travel can be advantageous, of course, but unless these are accompanied by a spirit of inquiry and a zest for learning, they lose much of the value they might hold.

Thus, it seems to us inexcusable that those who plan to intervene in the life of a learner should be insensitive to the impact of resultant changes upon the family in which he lives. This would seem especially true where intervention partially eliminates disadvantages in one person while leaving his family as disadvantaged as before. By creating discrepancy we risk compounding the disadvantage of those who have hitherto had the advantage of at least some degree of mutual regard among family members. When the advantaged person is a child, his parents may be thus increasingly disadvantaged. It may be hard for them to tolerate the dissonance created by this reversal and distortion of the usual roles in a family.

On the positive side because parents play so vital a role in the education of the preschool child, we must try to find a way to put their enormous influence on the side of successful achievement and the development of competence, while minimizing the risk of reinforcing the long-existing negative and hostile attitudes toward schools, teachers, and learning which some of them possess. If we do not elicit their cooperation we lose the most significant ally the schools have. It is during the formative preschool years that parents must be helped to play the role of teacher, for their interest in and concern about the child's learning experiences are today recognized as one of the basic ingredients in the process of education.

The role of teacher, fortunately, involves certain kinds of behavior which can be learned by all parents. It is likely that parents can perform the teacher role without understanding fully how certain of their own instrumental acts support and encourage the process of learning in the child. For example, we can explain to parents how critical to his child's school success is the ability to read. We can suggest to such parents that they acquaint him early with books and reading, with libraries, story hours, and from the beginning they spend time singing, telling stories, and reading aloud to their preschool child. It seems immaterial to the goal we have in mind, whether or not the parent understands *how* this performance facilitates the child's learning, but only that the parent believe *that* this happens. This is not a blind mechanical process. Nor do we believe that parents who have a thorough and sophisticated understanding of the process cannot function adequately in this role. Our contention is only that full understanding of the developmental and learning processes is not required of the parent who wishes to help in the education of his child but he must somehow come to appreciate learning as worthwhile.

As we think now of programs designed primarily to assist parents in deprived areas, we further believe that teaching them to function more adequately in this role is to provide them with still another competence and with the increased sense of self-esteem which accompanies such personal growth. We believe that training of this order has high transfer value; that parents will generalize from their experience with their own preschool child to their interaction with their other children. The skills which parents acquire through preparing children to profit from beginning school experience can be applied also with youngsters at a variety of other educational levels. This kind of parent education involves principles and generalizations which can be applied by parents to many situations; it is thus the kind of training which helps parents help themselves. Thus it may be that we will be able to intervene decisively in the cycle of failure and frustration.

We have now talked a good deal about the importance of preschool programs for the facilitation of learning. Of what exactly shall they consist? What kinds of ventures shall experimental-minded school administrators advocate? Well, obviously, what is good for one school setting may not be good for another, and therefore this program should be administered at the local level. To decide "at the top" that a program of preschool enrichment and parent education be introduced "across the Board" throughout a school system would be just as insensitive and injudicious as introducing foreign languages in the elementary school and then requiring that all children, for example, take one or more years of a given language. No, the role of the superintendent and his assistants or district administrators is to endorse a preschool program, encourage local principals with the aid of consultants to develop through the cooperation of parents one suited to their children's particular needs, and to provide budget with which this may be done.

At the local level the preschool program for the children can be developed along lines already well delineated in the literature on early childhood education. Among the culturally deprived much emphasis will be placed upon encouraging language development, for it is not unusual to find that these children have had hardly any practice in conversation, and consequently are proficient neither in speaking or listening. Much attention will likewise be paid to broadening their range of experience with materials of various colors, forms, textures, and uses, thus sharpening their sensory apparatus and perceptual processes. Perceptual-motor development must likewise be promoted through opportunities to learn new skills such as painting, building, cutting, pasting, sifting, fitting, and steering.

But what about the parents? Ideally, they should be organized into classes in which they would receive instruction in how to play their role in the education of their child. As we have noted, one is likely to run into serious difficulties if the deprivation of the parents is not taken into account. They have really had very few of the experiences which we would like for them to share with their children, and logically we might begin by providing them with an opportunity to widen their own horizons. Weekly field trips to a variety of places in the metropolitan communities in which they reside has the double advantage of broadening their own conception of the world as well as being a naturally interesting program more likely to encourage participation than a program styled along somewhat more traditional adult education lines. The point to remember is that in many respects these disadvantaged parents are not really adults and are still eager to participate in some of the experiences which we normally associate with children and adolescents. The eagerness with which they participate in parties, ostensibly planned for the children, but most enthusiastically entered into by the parents is further evidence of their needs along this line.

Exposure to the world of books and reading to children may be quite difficult, for many parents among the culturally and economically disadvantaged have had quite negative experiences with school, books, and learning, and are not likely to be regular readers. Yet exposure to children's books and an opportunity to browse through or read them themselves give the parent an acquaintance with the stories which may then trigger at least a willingness to provide some opportunity for his child to share his new experience.

Assistance in breaking through the economic barrier which is so large a factor in this entire problem is also a fundamental issue. Acquaintance with job training programs and some help in getting started on the road to employment can be a vital first step on the road to a new self, a higher level of personal confidence and self-esteem. Such a change in the parents is not likely to be without influence upon the attitudes of their children, and it is precisely here where a fundamental change could represent the difference between success and failure in their early school experience. For maximum benefit to both child and adult there is a need to coordinate efforts with all agencies working with the family.

Programs for parents of school age children

Although the effectiveness of parents in the guidance of learning is a function of how early they begin to play their role *vis-a-vis* the child, the school must help parents to continue to function as a teacher to the child just as long as the relationship between them will permit such a process. We know that in many instances as children grow older they become somewhat less willing to be taught by their parents, but surely during the early elementary school years (or in terms of our suggested organization, during the years in the lower school) parents are sufficiently prestigeful to give substantial support to the learning endeavors of their children. It is such endeavors with which school administrators should be deeply concerned and that they should make every effort to promote.

> Since the home is so important in the work of the schools — especially in the elementary school period — every effort must be made to strengthen the relation between the home and the school. Parents must be involved in such a way that they can understand the importance of this level of schooling and so that they can provide support and reinforcement for the learning tasks of the school. Both teachers and parents must come to understand the ways in which the learning progress of all children is a dual task involving home and school.
>
> The schools must find ways of involving parents by imaginative devices such as special tutoring by the more able parents. Most central is the recognition by teachers and parents of the role of the parents in raising the aspirations of children and in the valuing of education and learning as major means of gaining security and mobility (Bloom, Davis, and Hess, 1965. pp. 26-27).

One group of parents who need the guidance of educators in order to do the best possible job with their youngsters are parents of gifted children. In addition to the fact that our schools have done considerably less for these than for other kinds of exceptional children, very little has been done in our communities to help adults truly to understand the nature and behavior of the gifted child. Even in this enlightened age we still hear parents saying that they only hope that their child will turn out to be a "nice average" youngster, because they don't want to have any trouble with him "fitting in." Much of this reticence in parents stems from fundamental misunderstanding of children with outstanding intellectual endowment and could be overcome by a program of public education. Some of it, of course, also stems from the fear which some parents have that they will not be able to cope successfully with the needs which such a child presents, and here again there is so much which an alert school administration could provide for its constituency. The dividends in terms of educational and learning advantage benefit not only the individual gifted child, but the community and nation as a whole. These too are children who can profit from excellent individualized instruction, and yet often because there are so many who are so needful of a teacher's time, these who are so bright are given little if any help. Certainly they are rarely taught in a manner befitting their capacity to learn. In a sense, of course, what we are doing is ignoring the degree of their brightness and encouraging the gifted child to coast along easily doing just enough to get by. The resultant loss in human potentiality which all of us suffer is staggering indeed.

Fortunately, the parents of gifted children are themselves likely to be above average folks who share the interests, values, and aspirations of school people. Recognizing the value of education and their obligation to do all in their power to provide optimal experiences for their children, they are very ready to be taught how better to play their part in the process. The formation of parent groups around the common factor of their children's special needs has the advantage not only of making a particular kind of instruction very relevant, but also in providing such parents an opportunity to share their experiences with their children and thus to learn from one another. The important thing is that these parents be helped to understand and accept their child's exceptionality. They need to look upon it as a blessing and not a burden, and to know that there is much that such children need and that they can give them in spite of the fact that they may appear so very self-sufficient and independent.

It should be obvious, however, that an administrator who dares to provide such programs for the parents of gifted children is sticking his neck out and may well be opening Pandora's box.

If we alert parents to opportunities which might better guide the learning activities of their youngsters we cannot very well avoid doing something about the way we teach these children in school. Thus a parent education program becomes an integral part of the curriculum, not just another fancy frill. It must become a part of the school's total effort on behalf of the learner; it must represent an effort really to get serious about learning and to do *everything* in our power to facilitate it. Many suggestions have been made to help teachers understand and identify gifted children and deal more effectively with them in the school (Gallagher, 1959; Torrance, 1961), but much remains yet to be done. All this, of course, will be a costly business and the administrator will be the first to remind us that our budgets are presently overtaxed and that the realities of the situation will hardly permit any expansion of the present program.

The truth is, of course, that this is the key to the whole program and that if communities do not begin to give much higher priority to education in the annual budget deliberations, then they are really saying that they do not respect their educational leadership, that they are not convinced of the importance of learning for all persons in the community, and this negative evaluation or vote of "no confidence" has a way of getting through to the youth of the district and is bound to make a difference in their motivational system as well. On the other hand, we have pointed out before that there is bound to be saving in cost of remedial education and various special provisions which are currently made to accommodate the youngster who got off to a bad start. To some extent, at least, there will be compensations which will offset a part of the increased cost which must inevitably accompany concerted and vigorous efforts to improve the educational program in any given school district. This goes back, however, to what we said earlier about the stature of the educational administrator. An excellent example of this is cited in a recent Office of Education publication *(Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged, 1963)*. "Cardozo High School, Washington, D. C. At the last parent-teacher meeting at Cardozo, the auditorium, which has a seating capacity of 1900, was filled. In the past, we were lucky to get 250 people to attend a parent-teacher's meeting. This change is primarily due to the efforts of an imaginative principal, Dr. Bennetta Washington. She has completely changed the image of this school through her dynamic leadership and imaginative program" (p. 42). Without this kind of confidence of our constituents and more than a little enthusiasm for what we are trying to accomplish there is very little likelihood that anything of any real moment will be happening in our local school systems.

Another group of parents who need the help which a perceptive school administration can provide are those whose homes are not economically or socially, but *spiritually* disadvantaged. Now by this we do not mean that these homes lack certain religious components (although this may also be true in some cases), but we have reference to the general confusion over goals and values which produce a kind of inertia of the spirit. These are homes in which one senses no direction or meaning in life. People like this do not appear to be going anywhere, they are certainly not to be described as being on a mission. Varg (1965) put it this way: ". . . Confusion of the mind may be the deeper cause of our sagging spirits. Great and perplexing as are the dangers of nuclear warfare and racial unrest, they loom even larger because of our inner uncertainties as to what is worthy and what is unworthy of our dedication" (p. 1). And yet, unless the learner ultimately has some notion of what it's all about, what purpose all this learning has, his motivational system is fundamentally incomplete (Campanella, 1955).

The professional educator is in an excellent position to underscore for the adults in his community the basic values of giving and serving as opposed to getting and being served. As a member of one of the helping professions he is already identified as a person who is somewhat less materialistically oriented than some of his fellow citizens, and should for this reason be in an advantageous position to help others evaluate their own goals and purposes and thus perhaps to stem the tide of our growing devotion to things. John Steinbeck once said that if he wished to destroy a nation he would give it too many things. Another person has pointed to the unfortunate outcome of such an overabundance of things when he suggested that we are in danger of serving those things which we ought to use and using those persons whom we ought to serve. It is precisely such distortion and inversion of basic human values which we are here calling spiritual disadvantage and which we believe the school has a basic obligation to examine.

This, of course, means getting over into the realm of moral and spiritual values, but after all this is hardly more than a re-emphasis for American public education. It is certainly not a new departure. Some of us believe that we could without too much difficulty write a code of moral and spiritual values based on our Judeo-Christian tradition which would be acceptable to all our citizens whether they held either of these traditions as their religion, or any other, or none at all. It is of special importance that we all recognize how essential such a set of values is to the growing, learning child, since this is probably our most important single argument in bringing the revival of concern over values into the life and interest of many parents who have been caught up in the rush of a rather purposeless, meaningless existence. Our value system is a part of our motivational system, and problems in motivation are directly related to achievement and learning difficulties of all sorts.

There is much about underachievement that parents can be helped to understand. Perhaps of greatest value, however, is the rather paradoxical idea that their children's interest in learning can be rekindled and the direction of their progress reversed by taking pressure off of them rather than putting it on. More often than not, the parent must be removed from the youngster's back, for there is nothing more likely to arouse the parent's anxiety and cause him to bring all kinds of pressure to bear on his child than an indication that his child is not doing well in school. Some tentative evidence from a study of children's achievement in relation to parents scores on the Parental Attitude Research Inventory supports this view (Grams, 1962). The correlation between mother's scores on the Approval of Activity scale and the children's scores on a standardized achievement test proved to be one of the few significant correlations which appeared when a hurried check was made of the relationship between maternal attitudes and children's achievement. What this means is that mothers who agreed with items like "There are so many things a child has to learn in life there is no excuse for him sitting around with time on his hands," "Parents should teach their children that the way to get ahead is to keep busy and not waste time," "The sooner a child learns that a wasted minute is lost forever the better off he will be" more often had children who were achieving less well than other children in the group. Confronting parents of underachievers with information like this and spending time with them discussing the implications involved can result in some rethinking by them of their role in their children's problem, particularly in its aggravation if not in its generation.

The above may be especially relevant for specialists and others as they meet in discussion with parent groups who value achievement highly, or at least who aspire to a style of life which is associated with achievement and success. Other parents may need to be helped by psychological specialists to see how disinterest and apathy on their part may be an important component in their offspring's failure to achieve as well as he otherwise might. Recently, an informal Michigan survey indicated that the characteristic most frequently mentioned in descriptions of the excellent teacher was enthusiasm, and the same thing might be said for parents. In programs for parents of underachievers we might devise some really effective means of helping them to see the possible relation between their own stance toward life and that of their children and the bearing this may well have on the eagerness and excitement with which either or both of them approach a learning situation. Hopefully, if frustration and discouragement are at the root of the parents' apathy, our schools will be involved with other agencies in the community in an attempt to rectify these matters. Regardless of the source of the disadvantageous attitude, good guidance requires activity aimed at reducing such facets in the atmosphere which surrounds learning and the learner.

Specialists included in new programs

A number of studies cited in Chapter 1 describe the underachieving learner as a person lacking in self-sufficiency and independence and possessed of strong negative self-concepts (Shaw, Edson, and Bell, 1960; Teahan, 1963). Shaw and Dutton (1962) in another study, as well as Teahan point to the relationship between these personality difficulties and parental attitudes and suggest that in all likelihood hostile negative attitudes in parents are substantial factors in the causation of underachievement. Flieger (1957) suggests that the underachiever may be a maladjusted child whose primary difficulty stems from inadequate home or school relationships. He proposes that distorted interpersonal relationships lead to negative identification with teachers and that this in turn hampers achievement. As one might expect, the recommendation is made that counseling be provided to meet the problem both for the learner and for his parents. It is this latter point which needs re-emphasis here. If our studies of the underachieving child point to distortions in the parent-child relationship, then our job cannot be completed successfully without providing assistance to parents in the form of specialists.

In working with underachievers, the economically and educationally disadvantaged youth and his parents, a number of innovations include the use of specialists, some in new and different ways. Some of the projects reported by the National Education Association (1965) are worth noting here since they relate so closely to the view expressed in this monograph:

- The well known Higher Horizon Program in New York City which started in 1959 and now extends to 52 elementary schools, 13 junior high schools, and 11 high schools, stresses the use of additional teachers and counselors. Evidence to date shows that they have accomplished the cultural and remedial goals planned in this program.

- Los Angeles found that counseling in the evening was helpful to parents both of whom work during the day. In the same publication, it was reported that Washington D. C. used social workers in a Saturday School to help parents provide solutions to their most serious problems in the rearing of their children.

- A guidance program in 61 New York City elementary schools serving grades two through six is designed around what they refer to as an integrated educational-clinical resource for socially and emotionally disturbed from all social classes. Specialists in this program include, among others, counselors, psychologists, social workers, and psychiatrists.

These are but a few of the personnel innovations being utilized in working with disadvantaged youth in the elementary school.

We should not assume that low motivation is primarily a characteristic of severely disadvantaged individuals. Recently, someone asked about the high degree of underachievement among the children in affluent suburban communities, and it was suggested that this might reflect the very high degree of underachievement in the parents of these youngsters. Now to all outward appearances these parents are successful, but there is a very real possibility that many of them are operating much below their potential level, and perhaps for a number of reasons. In the first place, many of these people chose their parents wisely. They had the good fortune of being born to parents who could provide for their economic security throughout their lifetime. We are now at least two generations removed from those individuals who behaved in an "individuated entrepreneurial" manner (to borrow a phrase from Miller and Swanson, 1958), and the drive to acquire, to succeed, to eliminate the competitor is somewhat blunted, to say the least. The drive to exploit fully the potential which they possess is not likely to be very strong in individuals who already possess most of the tangible fruits of achievement, albeit someone else's achievement.

One frequently hears that our present economy has removed many of the incentives which formerly sparked individual achievement. If our tax structure precludes the amassing of immense fortunes, why should I bother to do more than a minimal job? This may well be a second reason for underachievement in the affluent classes. If it is, however, it should make us want to re-examine our value system and to ask whether the acquisition of power and prestige are the important ends or goals or whether or not the process of utilizing our abilities to the fullest extent ought not be the overarching concern while the product of such involvement be relegated to secondary importance in our value system. This, of course, brings up a fundamental issue in human personality, namely the relative importance of the process of pursuing a goal in contrast to the moment of goal attainment. There has been too much disregard of the process of becoming, and too much attention paid to the presence of those tangibles which for so many people symbolize the process. This results in a fundamental hollowness, a feeling of futility and meaninglessness, which seems to appear as a major component in our descriptions of the underachieving person. As we have pointed out earlier we are the poorer for having lost much of our ability to postpone gratification, and that patience and discipline are still basic ingredients in human wholeness. Philosophical as this may all sound, these are issues which the school has an obligation to open with its community, for it appears that these are issues which are fundamental to optimal guidance of learning activities. Though we are discussing these matters within the framework of helping parents of underachievers, such basic issues have relevance for our work with all parents, teachers, and other adults in the community who take seriously their obligation to support and encourage the learning process in their midst.

One other issue which has interesting implications for our discussion of underachievement is the style of work in the mammoth organizations which comprise so large a segment of the world of work. The impact of this upon the worker, his transformation into an "organization man" has, of course, been treated more fully elsewhere (Whyte, 1956), but what it has done to the achievement drive and the future orientation of substantial numbers of parents can at this point only be speculated, though it seems quite logical that its effect has been deleterious. As one begins to reflect on the varieties of organizations which clog our culture and tend to reduce individual initiative and limit productive output, it becomes increasingly clear that the problem of the underachieving child is one which must be studied and attacked within the context of an underachieving society. This, of course, enormously magnifies the difficulty of large scale solutions, but may afford the individual school under an enlightened and experimentally oriented administration the opportunity to make a substantial contribution within the population it serves.

Experimental Programs for Children

In addition to the programs for parents described above, effective guidance must include parallel innovative programs for children. One of the most significant emphases elucidated here is that, in terms of our definition, excellent instruction at all age levels is the basic component of good guidance. In our view, guidance must be concerned with the prevention of learning disability and therefore guidance must be concerned with experimental ventures designed to increase the efficiency of the learning process. But if experimentation leading to the improvement of instruction is to materialize in any school it will require the initiative of the administration and the support of the community. It is for this reason that we are discussing this phase of elementary school guidance in the chapter on the role of the administrator. Our plan is to sketch a number of innovations which seem to merit trial. They originate in the writing and work of a variety of people and are aimed at numerous objectives within the teaching-learning context. Our selection is by no means exhaustive and the reports of two recent conferences (Bloom, Davis, and Hess, 1965; *Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged,* 1963) provide additional examples, but we have tried to include some imaginative suggestions as to how better to nurture the learner during the elementary school years. Some may seem revolutionary, impractical, and unworkable, however, they hold considerable promise and must be given careful examination. A careful analysis of most of the objections might well reveal, however, that they are of two major kinds: tradition and budgetary limitations, and we have already said that the latter problem must ultimately be met in one way or another if we are going to solve the problem of learning failure and disability. What to do about the powerful influence of tradition is another matter. At times it appears a more formidable enemy to what we are here trying to accomplish than insufficient funds.

Entrance and promotional policies

Careful reading of what research there is with regard to entrance age and subsequent achievement in school reveals little which can be definitive for the administrator, but much which is provocative and stimulating. The usual sex differences in achievement are reported and one wonders how developmental lag alone can account for the fact that boys constitute so large a proportion of early failures, and yet this might be tested by admitting boys to first grade at the age of seven and thus making them a year older than their female counterparts. Some have even suggested that boys spend the additional year in a preschool or kindergarten and thus be just that much more ready for successful participation in first grade. This would have the added advantage of smoothing out some of the large discrepancies in stature and appearance in the middle school and early high school years, if the rate of learning in the two sexes warranted maintaining the one year difference in chronological age throughout their school experience. There is the possibility that the boys, although starting later, might be able to proceed at a more rapid pace, and before too long be able to overtake their age mates. Some of the work of Baer (1958) is instructive here, since he was careful to tease out the differential effects of chronological age and mental age, and also to follow over-age children into higher grade levels to see what occurred to the advantages they seemed to hold in the beginning years.

On the other hand, such an arbitrary decision as that suggested above certainly does not do justice to what we know about individual differences and makes no effort to utilize the services of specialists which he said in the last chapter should be concentrated in the earliest years of school. The establishment of preschools as an integral part of the public school system could give us valuable information about the developmental pace of children and provide excellent opportunities to bring the full complement of our diagnostic and predictive skill to bear in ascertaining the readiness of a given child for the first grade. That trained specialists as well as the primary teacher should not see every prospective entrant and his parents sometime during the preschool period is professionally indefensible. Since it is mental age at the time of entrance and not choronological age which is significantly and positively associated with differences in achievement, promotion, and social development (Bevington, 1958), we have an obligation to use evaluative instruments, interviews, and observational techniques in order to ascertain one's total development and his readiness for school learning. We have known how to do these things for a long time and we have acknowledged their importance, we have simply been derelict in their application.

Our promotional policies also lag far behind our actual knowledge. It appears that non-promotion of children who do not meet minimum standards for passing to the next grade proves no benefit to them in the long run. It appears that such children would be better off "passed along." But we know better than this also. Each child ought to be permitted to progress at his own pace through an ungraded primary experience, perhaps for his entire tenure in the lower school. There need be no hurrying the child who develops slowly and takes longer to master the fundamentals. There is no reason why other children should not move through the "basics" and out of the lower school in as much as a year less than the time ordinarily taken. (In some instances their stay could even be briefer than that.) For too long we have harnessed learning to the artificial barriers of age and grade, and in doing so we have systematically belied our knowledge of individual differences. There are those, of course, who will raise the problem of the social adjustment of children whose age varies markedly from that of the majority of their classmates. But this caution is rooted in a conception of education taking place in traditional classrooms with traditional methods and materials, which is not pertinent to the concept of learning being considered here. We are, of course, vitally concerned about the child's social and emotional development and we visualize classrooms populated by children varying widely in age because their eligibility for participation is determined by social, emotional and intellectual factors. If wider age variation in classes were more commonplace from the very outset of a child's school experience, the uniqueness of out-aged members of a class would disappear.

Teacher-pupil ratio

Entrance and promotional policies like those espoused above have never been given a serious hearing because they are unworkable within the framework of a 30-to-1 teacher-pupil ratio in the primary grades. Intelligent guidance of early learning experiences demands that this ratio be cut in half. The average class size in the kindergarten and lower school should be fifteen, but even here there are a number of important considerations which move us away from simply establishing some arbitrary figure. In the first place, there are some kinds of learning activities in which larger groups of children can participate with real benefit. Secondly, by the same token there are some learning situations which should utilize even smaller groups if optimal benefits are to accrue. Ideally, some of the children should be able to operate at their own individual pace and have opportunity for a near-tutorial relationship to the master teacher in the area.

It is important to note that teacher-pupil ratios can and should vary from subject to subject and from grade level to grade level. Unfortunately, however, the direction of the variation has all too often been reversed. Some colleges have a lower ratio than elementary schools, which is exactly the opposite of what is recommended here. With good teaching, older, stabilized learners who have had the benefits of small classes with more individualized teaching in their earlier years can make good progress in relatively large classes.

A single salary schedule and the reduction of class size ought to do much to attract truly outstanding teachers in the lower school. Hopefully, we will see many more men teaching beginning youngsters for we should not forget how Kagan (1962) alleged that the absence of men teachers in primary grades was a substantial factor in the relatively high rate of failure among boys in the lower grades. Now we have already suggested a number of other measures to counteract this high failure rate, but we strongly recommend giving his suggestion a trial and see what happens. Admittedly since all of this is going to cost more money we are still going to need much more tax support of public education in our communities and probably a good share of help from the Federal Government as well, especially to those communities less able to provide suitable funds. We hasten to add that this is the sort of expenditure we truly cannot afford not to make. The cost in human failure and wasted potential exceeds so greatly any additional expenditure we should be making in education that there simply is no comparison. Good guidance requires that our school administrators lead our communities to see that far greater sums are required to do the job well and eradicate much of the high cost of failure and underachievement which plague us now.

Teacher assistants

The use of teaching assistants by college professors is an old and established custom. The function of such aides is to relieve the academician of much of the "detail" involved in teaching so that he might more fully devote himself to his teaching, *per se*. The value of such assistance is attested to by any teacher who has ever had it, and it is one of the repeated requests expressed by teachers in recent school system surveys (Havighurst, 1964). It seems incredible that we have neglected to provide such help to those teachers whose availability for guiding learning activities should be our first and foremost concern. But here again we see the influence of the academic totem pole. Prestige and privilege are associated with teaching at higher levels, while those who teach the beginning learner are seldom feted or otherwise rewarded. In terms of grade level we have encouraged an upward mobility which tends to rob the lower school of high quality teaching and contributes to high turnover of relatively inexperienced teachers during the critical years of a child's school experience. It is high time we reversed this trend.

Certainly the reduction of class size and teacher-pupil ratio will do much to make teaching in the lower school more attractive and rewarding, but we propose that in addition teacher aides or assistants be provided for each teacher in the lower school and that an aide be assigned to each teacher in the middle and upper school. Providing teachers with such help may have a number of salutary effects. In the first place it will do much to bolster the self-esteem of teachers. What professional person does not have a secretary or other assistant to take care of the details which would consume so much of our time and energy and keep us from making optimal application of our professional skills? Hopefully, with the additional assistance, teachers in an effort to live up to new personal aspiration and increased community expectations, will expend energies they never knew they possessed. As a matter of fact they will have to, or be exposed as totally incompetent; in which case they do not belong in teaching anyway. We all know how a good secretary or assistant keeps a man on his toes. If there are others looking to us for leadership and direction it becomes very difficult to slide along from day to day in mediocre fashion.

A second thing accomplished by the introduction of teacher aides would be the greater implementation of our knowledge of individual differences. How much more realistic all of our ideas become when we put them in the context of a classroom of fifteen children with three adults to guide them. Under these conditions a teacher who wanted to spend a block of time with one pupil could justifiably do so. A teacher working with a small group could do so without interrupting the process to go to the aid of others engaged elsewhere in the classroom. This is a matter of paramount importance to teachers. When a sample of teachers in inner-city Chicago public elementary schools were asked what the Board of Education should try to do to make teaching in such schools more attractive, their first four suggestions were: 1) reduce class size substantially, 2) group children with more attention to learning ability and/or social maturity, 3) adjust the curriculum to fit in with pupils' needs and experiences, and 4) provide the teacher with assistants to work with individual children (Havighurst, 1964, p. 167).

Still another advantage of using aides, especially in the beginning grades, is that it helps children make the transition between nursery school and kindergarten. Some youngsters are at quite a disadvantage going from a four-year-old group in a superior nursery school which consisted of about eighteen children, a head teacher and two or three assistants to a kindergarten with one teacher and thirty children. It does seem a little odd, doesn't it, that we should expect one year of age to enable a child to do without the kind of supervision which good preschools have provided all along. The preschools have blazed the trail for us all the way. It is high time we recognize that a teacher-pupil ratio shift from less than 10:1 to 30:1 is too drastic to be justifiable. We need to make changes and to make them fast. There is hope on the horizon if imaginative administrators move to capitalize upon it. The War on Poverty is making possible some startling renovations in schools located in disadvantaged neighborhoods. These new patterns could well become important precedents to sweeping revisions throughout an entire school system. One of the most important results of "Operation Head Start" may be the fact that there are now more than 5,000 "spoiled" teachers in the public schools. These are classroom teachers, primarily kindergarten and lower grade teachers, who were given an opportunity to teach under the circumstances they had longed for — a group of fifteen children, plenty of equipment, and several adult assistants or aides. Some of these aides, as well as others who will be employed for the experimental preschools being set up with funds provided by the Economic Opportunity Act, and other grade levels through the Elementary-Secondary Act of 1965 will come from the very neighborhood in which the schools are located. This introduces still another genuine advantage of employing teacher assistants.

The persons employed by the schools to assist classroom teachers become involved in the world of learning and the learner. They will undoubtedly identify with the schools and teachers and develop the kind of loyalties to the institution and its work which will do much for the image of the school in a community. These people can become, next to the children themselves, our best public relations media. There is much that parents need to know about the problems the school faces, and teacher aides, who for the most part will be parents themselves, are just the people to tell them. The understandings gained, not only by the aides themselves, but also by those parents whom they may contact and influence, can serve to bring about a rapprochement between school and community which cannot but help to benefit the youngsters in the long run.

One last advantage to providing teachers with assistants is found in the increased time this provides them for consultation with parents and specialists. Much of this was discussed in detail in the two preceding chapters and thus requires only reiteration at this point where we suggest means by which such consultation can materialize. Parent appointments need not be put off until late afternoon, but can occur during the day if the situation warrants it. Teamwork between specialist and teacher on the other hand can only really take place where the teacher is free to spend some time in true professional dialogue. The presence of the specialist, of course, does even more to reduce the teacher-pupil ratio in the lower school, and now with some time for intelligent planning the teaching team ought to be a good deal more successful in preventing learning difficulties. This is just another way of talking about the facilitation of individual adequacy through learning which is the fundamental objective of guidance in the elementary school.

Parent volunteers

Since home-school cooperation has been a dominant theme throughout these pages it is most appropriate that we conclude our presentation of some experimental or innovative programs with a description of still another role which parents can play in the education of children. The use of parents as assistants to the teachers is, of course, a partial solution to the budgetary limitations discussed above which may prohibit school systems from moving as rapidly as it ought in providing salaried assistants. Mothers can do a number of the routine tasks which deter a teacher from devoting more time to actual teaching. Although such assistance can be a godsend to the harried teacher, we would suggest their help might be equally if not more valuable in other capacities, especially from the point of view of the children. One of these is as a resource person who can augment the teacher's knowledge and skills in certain specific areas. A mother who is an expert seamstress can work with a group of children responsible for making costumes for a play which the children are presenting. Still another group of children, under the direction of a mother with appropriate talents could create the costume designs from which the former group would produce them. A carpenter with a little imagination and a yen to teach can do a lot for a stage crew as they construct scenery. In the course of producing a single play, many talented parents can make a substantial contribution to small groups of children who demonstrate an interest in certain aspects of the project. Other projects, of course, would utilize additional parents depending upon the kinds of skills required.

Some schools actually canvass the members of their community in order to discover the "hidden talent." Such folks, often parents as well, become members of a corps of "auxiliary teachers" who are on call to assist in enriching the teaching in their schools. Though these "teachers" usually come to the schools to make their contributions, in some instances children go to them. One parent who is an artist and an art teacher regularly brings a group of children up to his studio where they watch him work, learn about the varieties of media with which he works, and have some opportunity to "try their hand." This is an unusually provocative setting for children with an artistic flair. Children who have visited a local businessman on a number of occasions have a grasp of merchandising which would be difficult if not impossible to provide in any other way.

In addition to the obvious advantage to the children who get involved with a particular talented parent, there is the added factor of the closer identification of still another group of parents with the schools and the teaching-learning process with which they are involved. Parents who function as auxiliary teachers are much more likely to be able to convey to their children and their friends the kinds of attitudes and understandings which are important to a learner's optimal performance. Their closer contact with the school and the teacher can be an important factor in bridging the gap between the school and the home. Such joining of forces in an all-out crusade against learning failure is clearly quite close to the major objective we have had in mind all the while. But such cooperation between parents and teachers does not flourish without cultivation. And this is once again where the administrator comes in. Without his personal support and encouragement, little of any significance is likely to happen along these lines.

Epilogue

The guidance of learning is a responsibility which must be shared by parents, teachers, specialists, administrators, and other concerned adults in the community. In short it is everybody's business. In reality, however, it is not likely to be anybody's business unless the administrators of our schools assume the lead in laying this matter more heavily on the consciences of us all. Ultimately, the objective of vastly improved learning in young children can be achieved only as all concerned, informed, and responsible parties accept their share of the responsibility and bend every effort to provide the improved guidance of the elementary school child which we have dared to dream about in these pages.

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Appendix I

A Suggested Demonstration Model* for an Elementary Guidance Program Utilizing the Role of an Elementary Guidance Consultant

G. Dean Miller

Introduction

Developing general theory is a very necessary step in attempting to bring together relevant knowledge in a given field in order to shed light on human processes and give direction toward understanding interrelationships of the forces which function to impede or facilitate the process under consideration. There is a very important next step and that is to attempt to demonstrate and evaluate the theoretical concepts developed in the general theory in an effort to influence the process in the desired directions.

The suggested model here is designed to demonstrate some of the concepts developed in the monograph and elsewhere (note below). The following areas are covered.

Outline

A Goals Statement
    Individual and Societal Needs
    School's Role
Basic Assumptions about *Learning*
Basic Assumptions about the Nature of the *Learner*
Basic Assumptions about Elementary Guidance
Basic Assumptions about the Role of Others in Elementary Guidance
    Parents
    Teachers
    Specialists
    Administrators

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*Based upon concepts developed in this monograph; *Perceiving, Behaving, and Becoming*, ASCD Yearbook 1962; and Bloom's, *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.

- Goals of Elementary Guidance
- Role of Specialists as Facilitating Agents
  - School Psychologists
  - Social Workers
  - School Nurses
  - Elementary Guidance Consultants
- Methods and Procedures
- Distribution of Guidance Consultant's Time
- Evaluation

A Goals Statement

Individual and societal needs

The child needs to become knowledgeable about man and the universe and to understand his fellow man; to develop a style of his own not only to cope with life as he finds it but to become aware of and active in the process by which one seeks truth and struggles to reach self-fulfillment in an interdependent world.

Our pluralistic society needs informed and responsible citizens in order that the quality of opportunity and regard for human dignity might be improved and extended to reach all of our people everywhere.

School's role

The school has a responsibility to establish and maintain an on-going system of educational opportunity whereby the changing needs of the individual and our democratic society can be identified and served.

Opportunity must be provided for the individual to acquire and keep abreast of knowledge and understand its use; develop individual aptitudes; develop communication skills; understand and use preventive principles of personal and community health; develop appreciation of art, literature, drama and music; understand the place of work in life; understand one's self concept (worth, values, philosophy, etc.) and develop a concern and respect for others, in essence, this means developing an adequate personality in a pluralistic world.

Basic Assumptions About *Learning*

1. Learning is a process which continues throughout life.
2. Important learning takes place before a child enters school, the success or failure of life's experiences to this point will have a direct influence on one's success in the formal school setting.
3. Significant learning, basic to building the adequate personality takes place during the first three years in school in the form of basic knowledge and learning skills.
4. Psychological health is related to individual competences and is thus directly influenced by learning.
5. Learning is influenced by the values we hold and to change behavior very often means changing one's value system.
6. Learning and, therefore, one's behavior is also influenced by one's perception of life and his environment; to change behavior usually involves the changing of one's perception of his world.

Basic Assumptions About the Nature of the *Learner*

1. The individual is a relational being whose growth and development are dependent upon fellowship, communication, and interaction in depth with others.
2. Man is an active, dynamic, "doing" person and being able to do things successfully enhances one's personality development.
3. The individual is a choice-making being and decisions are influenced by, and will in time influence, what he is as a person.
4. The individual should be free to choose those avenues of experience which can lead to greater competence and hence more effective participation in community life.
5. To explore, discover, manipulate and innovate, in essence, *to become,* requires first of all the psychological, safety, belongingness and love and esteem needs of the individual are in good repair.

Basic Assumptions About Elementary Guidance

1. The development of individual competence broadly defined is viewed as the major contribution of the school toward one's total development as an individual.
2. Elementary guidance is defined as the process which facilitates the development of individual competence and the building of an adequate personality.
3. Elementary guidance then is a commitment to identify, encourage and implement aspects of the educational process which facilitate individual growth and learning or in a larger sense, the development of the truly adequate personality.
4. Many individuals in different roles have the potential to facilitate the process of self-actualization in another person.

Basic Assumptions About the Role of Others in Elementary Guidance

Parents

The attitude of the parents toward their child and learning can have a facilitative or negative effect upon learning and personality formation.

It is important to recognize that, parents have been influential in the process of growth and learning of their child five years before he enters school.

Specific functions can be identified for parents in guiding their role in facilitating learning in their child.

Teachers

The position of the classroom teacher in the learning process is such that she has the potential to become a significant agent to facilitate growth and learning in the life of the individual.

The effectiveness of the teacher's role is related to the degree with which she can remain open to the uniqueness of the individual and be perceptive as to the separate meanings learning has for him.

The ability of the teacher to operate in this facilitative role can be further enhanced through consultations from a variety of sources — parents, administrators, curriculum specialists, school nurses, social workers, school psychologists and others whose role is primarily interdisciplinary in nature.

Specialists

Many functionaries are available in the school to assist teachers in developing understandings of individuals and facilitating the educational process.

Specialists assist the teacher in communicating to parents the importance of their role in facilitating growth and learning in the lives of their children.

The specific role of a school specialist is differentiated by the functions he performs rather than the ultimate goals he seeks to achieve in the growth and learning of others.

The separate functions of specialists can be identified and their services coordinated to better facilitate the process of growth and learning in children.

Administrators

The central responsibility of school administrator is to the learner and the process which facilitates his full development.

The administrator is the primary person responsible to acquaint the community's citizens about the needs of the learner and what resources the school must provide to facilitate the process of learning.

The administrator can delegate distinct responsibilities to teachers, specialists and others who can carry on facilitating functions in the learning process. Many of the facilitative functions of the specialists overlap with the non-administrative functions of the principal and often the specialist will act as agent to reinforce and support concepts about learning stated by the principal. It is also the responsibility of the principal to interpret and communicate to others the central purpose of each functionary in the school.

Goals of Elementary Guidance

In a general way it is the goal of elementary guidance to identify and implement those innovations, functions and procedures which facilitate learning and the development of the fully functioning person. More specific purposes follow:

a. To assist the individual in deriving positive personal meaning from learning.

b. To help the individual child to become more aware of his being and assist him in developing a positive attitude toward self.

c. To assist the individual child to develop a positive attitude toward life.

d. To help the individual child experience satisfaction from his relations with adults and other children.

e. To identify and communicate to parents facilitating attitudes and experiences which will enhance the child's success early in life (preschool) as well as sustained support during his school life.

f. To identify and communicate to teachers facilitating behavior which they may utilize to enhance the child's opportunity for success in the school setting.

g. To assist the individual to develop competence with which he can cope with frustration and conflict in his personal-social life.

h. To help the individual become aware of the place of values in life and to assist him in developing a system of his own but one which is compatible with a pluralistic society.

Role of Specialists as Facilitating Agents

A variety of specialists trained in several disciplines are available to schools to meet the many and varied needs of children. The choice of specialists is an administrative decision made after a careful study of the nature of the student population and resources in the community. The exact number and kind of specialists needed may be difficult to determine but some judgment can be made and one or more specialists employed on an experimental basis. Careful evaluation after one, two, three or more years can yield guidelines for readjusting the number and kind of specialists needed for a given school district or separate schools within a given district.

School psychologists

This particular functionary with training in individual appraisal, child development, learning and related areas can perform the following functions on behalf of the learner:

a. provide consultative services to the parent, teacher, administrator and other specialists regarding disturbed and disturbing children.

b. develop a diagnostic work-up on referred children based upon testing, interviews, observations and conclusions. Recommendations for treatment, remediation or referral are developed in an effort to reinstate the individual as soon as possible in the process of becoming a person.

c. provide consultation about the individual learner (and learning) in the form of personal contacts with teachers, administrators, and other specialists. Consultation may also be general in nature so that concerns common to many teachers may be discussed in a small group setting.

d. provide clarification and referral of exceptional children, i.e. mentally handicapped, emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted, educationally retarded, the gifted and others who may need special services and/or special education.

Social workers

This functionary in the school with training in human behavior stressing the intrafamilial dynamics especially as they relate to school success for children can perform the following functions:

a. provide casework service to families who have troubled children in school. Through the interview the worker attempts to help the child and his parents clarify that which impedes his actualizing experiences in school.

b. provide human understanding to the troubled individual so that he can gain support in accepting his hindering situation and develop motivation and strength for solving or modifying it. The increase in self-understanding which should develop as a result of this human intervention will facilitate the process of the individual child's learning.

c. provide general consultations to *all* parents on a preschool orientation basis and thus act to prevent hindering experiences of the young student by attempting to develop facilitating attitudes on the part of parents.

d. provide consultation to teachers in order that they may deal more constructively with the troubled individual.

e. provide consultation to the parents where marital stress or interpersonal discord adversely affects the child in school (this consultation may take the form of direct casework or counseling services or referral to other community agencies or professionals in private practice who might better meet the needs of the family.)

School nurses

The public health nurse in the school setting has a background in growth and development, communicable disease control and health education. A person trained in this discipline may perform the following functions on behalf of the individual.

a. assume responsibility for developing in cooperation with other school staff an integrated program of health education, all for the purpose of contributing to the individual's growth and development.

b. provide consultation in individual cases for teacher, parents and children regarding the need for proper health practices including preventive measures which promote a sense of well being so necessary for development of the individual.

c. provide consultation for parents, children and teacher regarding health appraisal and remedial measures which may be necessary for correcting or reducing the influence of ill health on the enhancement of self.

d. provide consultation to parents and teacher regarding the need for referral to other specialists on behalf of the child who needs special care and attention.

Elementary guidance consultant

There are a number of new specialist roles being tried (cf. IRCOPPS Project) and some of these newer functionaries will undoubtedly better meet the needs of the developing child where no specialist has been available for all children before or where incomplete services have been available with the assistance of other specialists trained to deal with only "specialized" needs of the individual. Emphasis here is upon facilitating the learning and self-actualization of all children rather than focusing upon problem solving or remedial measures for the few.

The principal in an administrative role attempts to set the desired learning climate in the classrooms by working with teachers individually and in groups. The guidance consultant serves generally to reinforce this position and to implement it, especially as it relates to individuals. It is true that many of the facilitative functions described below overlap with the non-administrative functions of the principal and other functionaries in the school. The exact degree to which the guidance consultant will operate successfully in these overlapping functions will depend to a considerable extent upon the role interpretation by the principal to assure understanding of the central focus of the various roles. The variation in actual role from one staff to another is also a function of personality and individual competence.

The interprofessional worker may be expected to perform the following functions in a single building on a full time basis:

a. assist parents and teachers in developing further understanding that before desirable learning and personal adequacy can be fostered, proper nutrition, sanitation, disease prevention, medical care, safety, belongingness and love and esteem needs of the individual must be served.

b. assist teachers to become more sensitive in viewing learning as an individual matter whereby one can be led to discover, through exploration, personal meaning in school based activities; help them to become aware that learning "the facts" is but the first and simplest phase of the educative process, and that to bring "the facts" into the meaning world of the individual is teaching activity which makes a difference in the lives of the students.

c. assist the individual through personal encounter and indirectly through others to develop a positive perception of self in order to facilitate learning and enhance his chances of becoming an adequate person.

d. cooperate with the principal in identifying and establishing the "ideal" climate of the school — the constant search for ways of expressing the "I care" attitude toward each child in the group — getting to *know* students rather than just *knowing about* them.

e. assist teachers to operate from a facilitative, what-can-we-do attitude to stimulate human development with all individuals.

f. assist parents and teachers to understand how learning in school may be motivated and reinforced by them as they influence the coping behavior of the individual.

g. acquaint parents and the individual regarding the meaning of education for one's advancement and role in society.

h. encourage teachers to understand the importance of a friendly, accepting, and permissive classroom (classroom climate which encourages alternatives in problem solving) for building individual competence.

i. encourage parents and teachers to understand and provide early experiences in stimulation for verbal behavior.

j. encourage the individual directly and indirectly through parents and teachers to interact and deal with problems, explore the environment and learn new skills.

k. cooperate with parents and teachers in providing opportunities for all students to experience success, to see self as one who can do things for himself and also contribute to the group activity.

l. help parents and teachers to see that feelings, attitudes, convictions, beliefs, doubts, fears, loves, hates and values must be dealt within the home and classroom.

m. to provide additional opportunity for students individually or in small groups, by using another significant adult (guidance consultant) who can assist them through interview, play media, counseling, etc., in the process of self awareness and other developmental processes not completely achieved through the normal classroom structure.

n. to be readily accessible to assist individuals in meeting immediate needs which cannot always be met in the instructional group due to the nature of the problem and/or the class structure.

o. to provide consultation to teachers, parents and others when diagnostic or remedial measures may be needed for a period of time to better facilitate the individual's use of the educational process for the purpose of becoming an adequate person.

p. to provide assistance in making referrals to other school specialists or to community agencies or professionals in private practice (through parents) when the child is obviously not developing adequately.

Methods and procedures

The guidance consultant will utilize a variety of approaches as he attempts to achieve the guidance objectives desired above.

Following are some suggested approaches:

a. confer with teachers individually upon request or where there is a need to communicate information.

b. confer with the principal regularly, especially in the early phases of the project.

c. confer with teachers in small groups regarding role functions, student needs, and other related school matters.

d. meet with parents individually (or when requested, participate in a conference with them which includes other school staff).

e. meet with parents in groups for orientation purposes which very often will include other school staff.

f. meet individually with students, at times in a confidential way.

g. meet with students in small groups where there is a common guidance need.

h. cooperate in providing supportive procedures such as student cumulative record development, group achievement and aptitude testing, data and test interpretation, orientation programs and other related activities.

Distribution of guidance consultant's time

The ultimate aim here is to use this staff person as a facilitative agent in the school dedicated to working with *all* students, helping them to achieve as nearly as possibly self fulfillment in our interdependent society. However, as this guidance role concept is introduced into the school it is probably true that this person, in this role in order to communicate helpfulness and facilitation to teachers and others, initially will devote proportionately a higher percentage of his time working with individuals who have special needs and who may also need to be referred to other specialists. After his ability to be helpful in these cases has become more visible teachers will feel they can trust his judgment and will then begin to test out his suggestions regarding their facilitative role in the classroom with all children.

It is felt that proportionately more individuals from grades 4, 5, and 6 will be seen individually than those pre-school through grade 3 where the consultant will work individually but perhaps more indirectly through parents and teachers.

Submitting proposals

Schools interested in establishing pilot and demonstration projects of this type are encouraged to contact the guidance staff of the Department of Education, State of Minnesota, for *Guidelines for Submitting Local Demonstration and Pilot Project Proposals Pertaining to Elementary Guidance (NDEA),* Code: XXXIII-B-20. The minimum standards are listed in the Appendix II, page 220.

A limited number of projects for elementary guidance will be financed in part under NDEA, Title V-A. Additional projects may also be financed under P.L. 89-10, the Elementary-Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Evaluation

Arrangements have been made by the guidance staff in the State Department of Education to conduct evaluation of the demonstration projects under NDEA. Participating schools are invited to suggest other ways to evaluate the outcomes of the projects in any effort to gain as much information as possible about the work of the guidance consultant.

Schools financing such projects under P.L. 89-10 are also encouraged to work with the State Department regarding evaluation of elementary guidance projects of the type described here.

Appendix II

Minimum Standards and Procedures for NDEA Approval of Local Elementary Guidance Programs

Supplement to Code: XXXIII-B-20

1. A testing program including a test of scholastic aptitude in one grade K-6 and an achievement test battery in one grade K-6.
2. A minimum program for guidance including goals and objectives as are appropriate at the elementary level. This would include such activities as: (i) identifying the personal, social, educational and vocational needs of elementary pupils. (ii) carrying out such activities as are necessary to meet such needs of students. (iii) working with teachers, parents, and school administrators to provide such assistance and information about an individual student or groups of students as may be necessary to enable them to plan and implement curricular and instructional programs and services which will afford students maximum and equal opportunity for educational development.
3. Elementary guidance personnel shall perform the duties and activities as listed above. Such personnel shall have two or more years experience with elementary school children in such areas as elementary school guidance, child development, school psychology, school social work or elementary education with elementary teaching experience preferred. They shall have a master's degree reflecting a course work pattern and experience which indicates a broad knowledge of all of the disciplines mentioned above with emphasis in the field of guidance and counseling.
4. A ratio of not more than 600 pupils for each full time guidance worker shall be maintained.
5. Minimum physical facilities shall include adequate office space for each elementary guidance worker with a reasonable degree of privacy and equipped with such furnishings as are necessary such as desks, chairs, files, and other related equipment.

INDEX

Aberle, D. F., 73, 170
Achievement, in Relation to Parental Attitudes, 74
    In Relation to Social Competence, 57; Motivation, 57; Relationship to Adjustment, 19, 86
Achievers, Characteristics of, 57
Adams, A. A., 146
Adjustment, Relationship to Achievement, 86
Allport, G. W., 95
Administrators, Function of, 169-171
Agras, S., 50
Amatora, Mary, 62, 101, 116
Amell, Lillian, 100
Angelino, H., 88
Anti-Intellectualism, 171
Arbuckle, D. S., 37, 38
Argyle, M., 75
Association for Supervisor and Curriculum Development, 10, 11, 12
Attitudes Toward Self, 27
    Toward Others, 27
Ausubel, D. P., 123

Bacon, Margaret K., 58
Baer, C. J., 197
Baldwin, A. L., 54
Barnes, J. B., 117
Beach, L. R., 57
Beck, 42
Becker, Dorothy G., 114
Bell, H. M., 193
Bene, Eva, 73, 93
Berger, S., 41
Bergstein, H. B., 44
Berkowtz, Pearl H., 101
Berlin, I. N., 32, 42
Bertrand, A. L., 74, 86
Bevington, W. G., 198
Blatt, B., 26, 27, 91, 92, 108, 109, 116
Blodgett, Harriet E., 18
Bloom, B., 160, 182, 184, 188, 197
Bloom, I., 173
Bolzau, Emma L., 173
Bosdell, Betty J., 148
Bower, E. M., 94, 146, 148
Bowerman, C. E., 73
Bradford, L. P., 54
Brandt, R. M., 90, 104
Brim, O. G. Jr., 26, 57
Brison, D. W., 149, 154, 155
Brookover, W. B., 54
Brooks, Edna E., 74
Brown, G. I., 93
Bruner, J. S., 91, 94
Buri, Jane, 74
Burton, W. H., 33
Byrne, Elise A., 74

Campanella, T. C., 191
Carrillo, L. W., 71
Child Development Specialist, 44
Child, I. L., 58
Child Study Association of America, 104
Citizens Committee on Education, 172
Clark, K. E., 72
Clausen, J. A., 55
Clausen, A., 90
Cleary, Florence D., 88
Clise, Marjorie, H., 147
Cogan, M. L., 94
Cognitive Processes, 64-65
    Research on, 173
Coleman, W., 85
Collins, J. G., 88
Combs, A., 12, 30
Competence, Concept of, 30
    Development of, 40; Emotional, 29; In Relationship to Learning, 123; Interpersonal, 17, 18; Relation to Personality Development, 58; Relationship of Adjustment to, 18; Role of, 20; Social, 54
Conant, J. B., 68-69, 109
Cottingham, H. F., 10, 101
Cottrell, L. S., 18
Cox, Rachel D., 161
Crandall, V. J., 53
Creative Thinking, Components of, 66-69
Cutts, Norma E., 137

D'Amico, L. A., 91
Davidson, H. A., 100
Davidson, Helen H., 28
Davidson, K. S., 26, 27, 91-92, 108-109, 116
Davidson, Susannah, 51
Davis, A., 182, 184, 188, 197
Davis, D. A., 19
Della-Dora, D., 173
DeRoche, E. F., 159
Detjen, E., 37
Detjen, Mary F., 37
Dinkmeyer, D., 156
Donovan, C. F., 19
Dorn, Miriam S., 91
Douglass, Frances M., 100
Downing, R., 88
Drews, Elizabeth M., 49
Driscoll, Gertrude P., 38
Dutton, B. E., 18
Dreisbach, Dorothy, 158
Duke, R. L., 117
Dunn, J. A., 125, 153, 155
Dunn, L. M., 92
Dutton, B. E., 193
Dutton, W. H., 110
Dyer, W. G., 72

Eaton, M. T., 91
Eckerson, Louise O., 9

Economic Opportunity Act, 202
Edson, K., 193
Educational Policies Commission, 35, 169, 173
Eisenberg, L., 50
Elementary Counselor, Functions, 154-157
Elementary-Secondary Act of 1965, 202
Emotional Adjustment, Relationship to Achievement, 131
    Development, 22, 100-103
Emotionally Malajusted Child, 146-147
Enash, M. J., 142
Erikson, E. H., 91
Erwin, F., 158

Farnsworth, D. L., 22, 94
Farwell, Gail F., 9
Feld, Sheila, 92
Fink, M. B., 53
Finley, C. J., 174
Flanders, N. A., 117
Flieger, L. A., 193
Foote, N. N., 18
Foshay, A. W., 92
Frank, L. K., 97
Frank, Mary H., 97
Freehill, M. F., 60
Friedman, S. T., 153, 155
Froehlich, C. P., 10
Furness, Edna L., 174

Gallagher, J. J., 190
Garry, R., 10
Getzels, J. W., 91
Gifted Children, 143
Gilbert, L. J., 126
Gill, Lois J., 18-19, 57
Gjerde, C. M., 42
Gnagey, W. J., 88
Goertzel, Mildred G., 142
Goertzel, V., 49, 142
Gold, M., 32
Gold, M. G., 109
Goldsmith, J., 74
Goldworth, Mary, 58
Gordon, L. V., 108
Gordon, Ira J., 92
Grade Level Reorganization, 178-182
Grams, A., 18, 74, 101, 192
Grant, C. W., 44
Graves, Finetta, 153
Gray, Susan, 137-139
Grunebaum, Margaret B., 53
Guaranta, J. J., 10
Guidance, Definition of, 33
    Developmental, 11-13, 18, 30; Developmental Concept of, 125; Definition of, 22; Elementary, History of, 9-10; Facilitation of Learning, 19, 22, 105-107, 127; Functions of the Elementary Counselor, 154-157; Specialist, 105-106, 123-127
Gurin, G., 92
Guinouard, D. E., 87

Hahan, Pauline B., 89
Haring, G., 117
Harris, D. B., 72
Harris, M. W., 137
Hart, R. N., 149
Hauszen, Myra W., 116
Havighurst, R. J., 200, 201
Harper, L. E., 150
Henry, J., 97
Hersov, L. A., 53
Hertzman, J., 104, 144
Hess, R., 182, 184, 188, 197
Hess, R. D., 63, 174
Higher Horizons Program, 19, 194
Hill, G. E., 95, 106
Hindsman, E. P., 117
Hirning, L. C., 144
Hollister, W. G., 103, 116, 127
Holmes, A. J., 174
Holmes, J. A., 94
Hoyt, K. B., 34, 38-39, 158
Hubbard, J., 140
Hudson, Marie, 74
Hulslander, C. S., 10
Hunt, J. T., 103
Hypps, Irene C., 110

Idiosyncrasy, Encouragement of, 11, 12
Interpersonal Competence, 17, 18
    Relationships, 101
Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services, 124, 125, 131, 132, 136, 139, 140, 151, 153, 156, 157
Iscoe, I., 153, 155
Ivey, A. E., 127

Jackson, P. W., 91
Jersild, A. T., 13

Kaczkowski, H., 156
Kagan, J., 49, 98, 99, 112, 181, 200
Kapur, R. L., 22
Kawin, Ethel, 35
Kawi, A. A., 93
Kelly, J. L., 42
Kelly, Janet A., 37
Keltz, Elizabeth L., 173
Kimbell, Evelyn, 149
Kinch, J. W., 73
Kirk, S. A., 88
Klein, Ruth A., 39
Knapp, R. N., 10
Kolesnik, W. B., 10
Kowitz, G. T., 10, 11-12, 89
Kowitz, Norma G., 10, 11-12, 89
Kranes, Judith E., 11
Krich, A., 52
Kvaraceus, W. C., 89

Leonard, Dorothy, 38
Lessinger, L. M., 35
Leslie, G. R., 90
Lang, G., 28
Langdon, Grace, 114
Language, A Learning Experience, 63-64
Lapp, Esther, 173

Learner, Nature of, 15, 16
  Concept of, 25-31, 92-93, 107; As Decision Maker, 21
Learning, Definition of, 25, 29, 85
  Negative Attitudes Towards, 75; Prerequisites, 50; Psychology of, 134; Readiness, 61-62; Theory of, 83; Through Travel, 67
Levine, L. S. *et al*, 26, 44, 45, 89, 92, 112, 150, 151-152, 157
Levine, Madeline S., 109-110
Lewin, Kurt, 13
Liddle, Elizabeth A., 91
Lifton, W. M., 101
Lippitt, R. O., 32, 109
Liss, E., 54
List, Davida N., 114
Liversidge, W., 87
Lloyd, G. R., 18, *et al*, 87
Loughary, J. W., 158
Low, Camilla M., 38
Lornell, W. M., 42

Maddux, J. F., 140
Man, Nature of, 22
  A Relational Being, 17, 20
Maryland, Institute of Child Development, 104
Martinson, Ruth A., 10, 35
Maslow, A., 13, 22
Mathews, W. M. *et al*, 105
Maves, H. J., 116
McClure, Dorothea, 144
McDavid, J. W., Jr., 94
Meade, R. D., 93
Mech, E. V., 88
Mednick, 92, 93
Mensh, I. N., 108
Mental Health Centers, Minnesota, 158
Middle School, Arthur Rood School, 180
Miller, D. R., 195
Miller, G. D., 207
Miller, L. M., 56, 144
Missildine, W. H., 116
Morse, W. C., 50
Mortensen, D., 22
Motivation, Concept of, 93-94, 96; Parent's Role, 69-78
Murphy, G., 17, 21, 22, 35, 61
Murray, W., 173

Naegele, K. D., 73, 170
National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children, 14
National Association of Social Workers, 42
National Defense Education Act, 164
National Education Association, 53, 60, 194
National Institute of Mental Health, 124
Nesbit, Elsie, 41
Newman, Ruth G., 57

Ochroch, Ruth, 74
Oden, Melita H., 18
Ohlsen, M., 156
Olson, Trunette, 158
Orinstein, A. S., 52
Ostrovsky, E. S., 112

Parent, Volunteers, 203-204
  Attitudes of, 18; Attitudes of Toward Education, 33; Guidance Role, 113-114, 115; Spiritually Disadvantaged, 192
Parker, Erma B., 53, 158, 160
Pasamanick, B., 93, 113
Passaw, A. H., 173
Perkins, H. V., 90, 104
Peters, H. J., 9, 10
Peters, Mildred, 84-85
Peterson, M., 93
Phillips, E., 117
Phillips, B. N., 53, 92
Phillips, N., 91
Pierce-Jones, J., 139, 153, 155
Porterfield, O. V., 53, 54
Preschool Consultation, 161-162
  Development Role of Parents, 182-183
Preston, Anne, 53
Public Law 89-10, 36, 89-90, 107

Rabson, Alice, 53
Rankin, P. T., 103
Reading, Parents' Attitude toward 68, The Role of the Library, 68; Parents' Role in, 135
Redl, F., 89
Reiss, Grace, 53, 160
Resnick, J., 10, 87
Rettig, S., 113
Riccio, A. C., 10, 126
Ripple, R. E., 31-32
Robinson, P., 75
Rodriquez, A., 50
Rodriquez, Maria, 50
Rogers, C. R., 85
Rose, A. M., 72
Rosen, B. C., 92
Rosenfeld, H. M., 98
Rothman, Esther P., 101
Royster, W. B., 83
Rubenstein, B. O., 22
Rubin, Elizabeth Z., 158
Rudin, S. A., 143-144
Ryan, W. C., 106
Ryans, D. G., 97
Rychlak, J. J., 87

Sarason, S. B., 26, 27, 91, 92, 108-109, 116
Schlichting, H. F., 53, 54
Schiffer, M., 157
Schmuck, R. A., 91
Schmuller, A. M., 22
Schoenhard, G. H., 144
School Failure, 182
  Psychologist, Functions of, 137-140
Schour, Esther, 157-158
Schrier, H., 144

Schrupp, M. H., 42
Schutz, R. E., 92
Schwartzberg, B., 114
Self-Actualizing Personality, 13
Self Concept, 29, 31, 53
  Negative, 18; Relationship to Achievement, 53
Self-Realization, 12, 19
Sharp, G. B., 100
Shaw, M. C., 18, 136, 140, 193
Silverman, H. L., 86
Simson, C. B., 158
Sivertsen, D., 71
Skills, Repertory of, 18, 20, 26, 102, 55
Small, J. J., 97
Smallenberg, H. W., 10, 83
Smith, H. M., 9
Snyder, Edith R., 86
Social Competence, 54
Social Worker Functions in the School, 159-162
Specialist, Role of, 77-78
Spence, Louise C., 160
Sperry, Bessie, 52
Spilka, B., 18-19, 57
Sprigle, H. A., 49
Stewart, J. A., 38
Stout, F. W., 114
Stringer, Lorene A., 161
Strong, W. M., 10
Swanson, G. E., 195

Teacher, Assistants, 200-203
  Pupil Ratio, 199-200; Role of, 83; Status of, 114; In-Service Training, 103, 111, 133; Pre-Service Training, 108-115; Training of, 103
Teaching, Definition of, 33
Teahan, J. E., 49, 53, 193
Terman, L. M., 18
Tessman, Ellen, 89
Throckmorton, Margaret C., 158
Tiedeman, D. V., 14, 15, 18
Torrance, E. P., 143, 176, 190
Tuel, J. K., 136, 140

Ulrich, D. N., 53
Underachiever, 144
Underachieving Society, 197

Valasek, Frances, 72
Valett, R. E., 148
Values, Development of, 72-73
Varg, P. A., 191
Veroff, J., 92

Waldfogel, S., 89
Wall, W. D., 148
Wallach, M. A., 53
Walters, Annette, 88
Wann, K. D., 91
Wattenberg, W., 89
Wehmeyer, D. J., 126
Weigand, G., 71
Wertheim, Jr., 92-93
White, Mary A., 137
White, R. W., 91, 93, 96
Whyte, W. H., 196
Willey, R. D., 10
Williams, Judith R., 55, 90
Wilson, Frances, 11
Wolf, E., 89-90
Wolf, Recia, 89-90
Wolpert, A. W., 170-171
Wrenn, C. G., 152
Wright, B., 150
Wyatt, Gertrude L., 127

Yoshino, I. R., 89

Zander, A. F., 98

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